ORIGINS OF EDUCATION FOR THE BLIND IN AMERICA

ORAL O. MILLER

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ORIGINS OF EDUCATION FOR THE BLIND IN AMERICA

by

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Department of History, Princeton University, in
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Introduction

With the passage of time has come the changing of man's attitudes and thoughts on countless subjects. These vary from such seemingly distinct fields as religion, jurisprudence, science, and literature to morals, education, philosophy, and geography. Many of these changes have come about through relatively sudden or revolutionary means. An outstanding example is the present knowledge of the earth's shape. Although, before the first quarter of the 16th century, a few astronomers and geographers had insisted it was round, it was not until the famous journey of Magellan that the knowledge was brought home dramatically and conclusively. On the other hand, many present concepts and philosophies have come about through a long process of development. One needs only to examine English and American legal and political institutions to discover an obvious example. In general, we may say that these changes have been brought about intentionally or unintentionally. Often they have followed directly or indirectly upon the heels of mere accident or good fortune.

There are undoubtedly dozens of explanations for the periodic revivals of art, science, literature, and thought in the past. In this thesis I shall not add another reason for the occurrence of the Italian rennaissance, the literary revival of Elizabethan England, or the 18th century enlightenment. Consider briefly the great and comprehensive interests of the Enlightenment because it was Diderot in ~~1854~~ 1754 who first examined objec-

tively and wrote quasi-scientifically about the blind, a class which had been in a dull existence since earliest history. Perhaps it was the general interest of the period in man, nature, and the capabilities of man that motivated Diderot to make his study. Regardless of motivation, it was within the next generation that the first organized move was made to educate the previously ignored and pitied blind. From this eventually sprang the move which was to culminate with the establishment of institutions for the education and training of the blind in Europe and America in the early 19th century. Undoubtedly the change in the view toward the blind is to be considered one of the important steps in the field of general human relations and views of society of the past two centuries.

Society of the early 19th century, it is needless to say, was not as complex, industrialized, or competitive as it is today in America and western Europe. However, it was such that the blind, in order to become useful and productive members, must have either vocational or academic training before enterting a trade. This in turn meant a need for special institutions for this purpose. As the 19th century progressed and as American society became progressively more industrialized and complicated much of the training formerly given the blind became useless. No longer were blind individuals able to compete with the sighted in the production of baskets, mats, rope, rugs, etc. The result of this has been the gradual development of the present program of studies and vocational training offered by American schools for the education of the blind. By keeping in mind the value of education, especially for the

blind, we can see the importance of the move which has given us the facilities and methods for training America's sightless.

In this thesis I plan to discuss the origins of the education of the blind in the western world. I intend then to show how the driving force behind the move was brought to this continent and strengthened by Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe. In order to show how much Howe borrowed from his European predecessors and how much he devised or modified in the field of teaching methods, techniques, and educational philosophies, I shall briefly describe the systems and methods used in Europe at the time. I hope then to show the relation between the actions of Dr. Howe and the founding of representative schools for the blind in this country. Finally, I shall evaluate the lasting influence of the great American pioneer in his field. This will necessitate the brief description and discussion of schools, methods, educational aids, and ideas still being used.

Chapter I

Early Attempts to Aid the Blind

Until two hundred years ago virtually no notice was given to the blind of Europe. Before 1750 the sightless of all nations were truly an unfortunate class. They spent their lives, perhaps I should say existences, as charges of their families or of the community. From the Bible, various Roman histories, and other sources of ancient history, we have received virtually hundreds of accounts of blind beggars who stationed themselves beside the road or the temple entrance in order to plead for alms of almost any type from passers-by. Often they were treated as mere animals for sport. For instance, in the 13th century a French king, in order to furnish entertainment for his court, had several blind men armed with full armor and heavy clubs. He then had them placed in a pen with a frightened hog, which they were to try to win by successfully beating and capturing. It is needless to say that in the contest which followed the blind men, if it had not been for their armor, would have accidentally killed one another with their weapons.(1)

Fortunately, the blind have not always been targets for sport or degrading charity in all nations. In ancient Japan they were taught the history of the empire and then congregated as human libraries.

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1. Anagnos, M., Education of the Blind, p. 3.

In order to learn a certain fact one merely had to ask the imperial supported blind library. However, with the exception of Japan no land or people saw the sightless as human beings capable of living useful, dignified, and independent lives. For this reason they were indiscriminately cast into alms houses and prisons with visious criminals, the insane, and the morally perverted.

The fact that the blind were treated as mere beggars and the most indigent of paupers does not mean that none gained everlasting fame or praise. We need mention only the names of Homer, Democratus, John Milton, John Metcalf--the great English surveyor and road builder of the 17th century--Sandersaun--the brilliant lecturer in mathematics at Cambridge in the 18th century--Blacklock--the Scottish theologian and philosopher of the 18th century--and Maria von Paradis--the brilliant Austrian musician of the mid and late 18th century--to prove this. Since it was inconceivable that the sightless could master a subject or a difficult task at the time they lived, these were naturally heralded as marvels, geniuses, or phenomena. It is true that their accomplishments were indeed spectacular, but their principal importance lies in the fact that they served as inspiration, models, or guiding spirits for men who were to insist in the late 18th and mid 19th centuries that the blind could be educated or given useful vocational training. In fact, many of the devices, methods, and systems for learning used by these famous blind people were modified and adopted by pioneers in educating the blind.(2)

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2. Ross, Ishbel, Journey into Light, p. 92.

As Christianity gained strength in Europe the view toward the blind changed somewhat. The first public manifestation of this was the founding of the Hospice des Quinze-Vingts by Louis IX in 1260. This was an asylum established for the blind veterans of Louis's army. It should be noted that it was not a school in any sense of the word; it was a shelter for former soldiers and their families.(3) In the late 13th century a similar institution was founded at Chartres. King John in 1350 endowed this institution with an amount sufficient to support 120 men. Both of these remained in existence until the 19th century.

The 16th century saw the first attempt to teach the blind to read. The system used was intaglio, which was not successful because of its illegibility. In the 17th century raised letters were tried. These were constructed of thin wood in such a way as to permit them to slide along grooves. It was soon apparent that these also were too inconvenient. Pierre Moreau in 1640 attempted unsuccessfully to cast letters of lead so they would be of a more useful form. The last attempt of the 17th century to investigate the possibility of educating the blind was made by an Italian, Father Lana Terzi, in 1670. His work was of a superstitious and general character and dealt with teaching the deaf and secondly the blind.(4) Not until 1745 did Europe and the world see a reasonably objective investigation of blindness, the visual process, and the possible uses of the sense of touch. This was in the form of the letters of Diderot.(5)

3. Brockett, L. P., "Institutions and Instruction for the Blind," The American Journal of Education, v. 4, September, 1857.
4. Ibid.
5. Merry, Ralph Vickers, Problems in the Education of Visually Handicapped Children, p. 10

The year 1771 is one which should be marked by anyone interested in education for the blind. It was in that year that Abbe Valentine Hauy saw a burlesque concert in a Paris cafe which inspired him to begin the first systematic attempts at educating the sightless. He saw several blind men dressed in dunce caps, wearing large cardboard spectacles, looking blankly at music set on a rack before them, and blowing harshly and unharmoniously on various musical instruments. This caused Hauy to begin his efforts by finding a young blind beggar, Lesueur, in one of the alms houses of Paris and paying him the amount which he would usually receive begging in exchange for Lesueur's becoming his student. Hauy first utilized a thin wood tablet and raised characters as a means for providing tangible Italian lettering. Through an accident Hauy and Lesueur discovered that letters could be embossed successfully upon and read from very heavy paper.

News of the success of Hauy spread rapidly throughout Paris. As a result in 1784 under the support of the Philanthropic Society the first school for the education of the blind was opened. When the school was established, the Academy of Arts and Sciences appointed a commission to provide for the education of fourteen blind children. The popularity and the size of the school increased so much that in 1786 its founder with his twenty-four pupils were asked to appear before the royal court at Versailles. As a result of the eight day exhibition of students' abilities the recently founded school was granted direct royal patronage.(6)

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6. Ross, Ishbel, op. cit., pp. 96-104.

Until 1791 Hauy therefore was free to introduce the teaching of music, reading, book binding, and printing of embossed books as parts of his developing program.

1791 saw the French institution for the education of the blind, the first of its type in the world, receive a blow from which it did not recover for more than two generations. In that year the Philanthropic Society was abolished and the school was placed directly under the support of the rapidly republicanizing government. However, it soon became evident that the support, which was in the form of inflatable assignats, was not sufficient for the growth and development of the school. As economic conditions became worse during the Terror and as assignats became progressively more worthless it became necessary for Hauy and his pupils to resort mainly to mere printing for money to keep the school in existence. During this time Hauy, who himself was an active pamphleteer against the Jacobins, sacrificed his fortune and his health for the institution.(7) In 1795 the school was reorganized, however, along the lines of a workshop for the blind.

If Abbe Hauy considered the actions of the French government in 1791 a misfortune he undoubtedly considered the actions of the Directory in 1800 a disaster; the school for the young blind was combined with

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7. Brockett, L. P., op. cit.

the Hospice des Quince-Vingts. This meant that the educational program was virtually halted and that the students, who ranged in age from ten to eighteen, were migled with the vicious, corrupt, and cruel inmates of that ancient institution.(8) After protesting futilely to this objectionable union Hauy resigned in 1802 his post, which by then had become mainly titular, and established a private institute for the blind, Musee des Aveugles. Due to a lack of support he was forced to close this school in 1805. He then journeyed to Russia where he founded in 1806 the Russian Royal School for the Blind. This was accomplished in the face of strong opposition from a very conservative aristocratic faction, which insisted loudly that Russia had no sightless. Another fruit of Hauy's labor after leaving France was the establishment of a similar school in Berlin.(9)

Not until 1814 was the school separated from the Hospice, put again under royal patronage, and renamed the Royal Institution for Blind Youth. Then a Dr. Guillie was selected to superintend the operation of the royal academy. Unfortunately, Dr. Guillie was a very pompous, deceitful, and scheming man. During his superintendancy the only major step forward in the field of education or vocational training was the introduction of piano tuning by Claude Montal. In order to

8. Illingworth, W. H., History of the Education of the Blind, p. 5.
9. Ross, Ishbel, op. cit., p. 113.

decrease operating expenses Guillie used the "pass on" system of teaching. That is, the few teachers he employed instructed the older and more intelligent students especially in music; these in turn were to give the same instruction to the younger or slower pupils. Naturally, this system was not effective in educating the entire student body. In order to impress visitors and government commissioners Guillie presented frequent exhibits of the handicraft of his pupils. In reality much of the material exhibited had been bought in the commercial market the previous day.(10) Finally, the vain Guillie in an attempt to glorify himself rejected the system of embossing books developed by Hauy and substituted for it a far inferior method. Fortunately, in 1820 the deception and trickery which had been practiced by Dr. Guillie during the preceding six years was discovered by a royal investigating commission, which then brought about the resignation of Guillie.(11)

During the years immediately following Guillie's superintendancy, the Royal Institution for Blind Youth made very little progress under the leadership of Dr. Pignier, a well-intentioned, truthful, but ignorant man. Under his guidance the curriculum was gradually increased to include more subjects in the field of natural science and liberal arts. It was in 1829 that one of his instructors, Louis Braille, modified a system of tangible dots into the code which has revolutionized methods of educating the blind.(12)

10. National Magazine, January, 1857.
11. Ross, Ishbel, op. cit., 116.
12. Brockett, L. P., op. cit.

No discussion of Europe's early efforts to educate the blind could be complete without briefly mentioning the other institutions which were established between 1790 and 1850. They were important principally because they served as experimental bases for the countless systems of reading and writing developed for the blind during the first half of the 19th century. Generally they were founded upon principles fundamentally different from those of later American schools. They often resembled asylums or trade schools rather than schools for the education of the blind. In this respect they were "beacons to warn rather than lights to guide." Institutions were established at Liverpool in 1791, Bristol about same time, London 1799, Norwitch in 1805.

By 1850 there were in Europe: three schools for the blind in Russia, five in Switzerland, three in Belgium, two in Spain, thirteen in Britain--three in London--thirteen in France, twelve in Germany and Austria, six in Ireland, three in Italy, three in Holland, one in Turkey. Many of these had been opened by the fire of reforming zeal, but most of them had greatly lost their effectiveness and efficiency by the mid 19th century. Most had lapsed into merely teaching simple handwork such as knitting, basket making, weaving, rope making, some piano tuning, broom making, etc. It should be noted, however, that the Amsterdam school was very advanced in its methods and objectives. By 1850 it was already using Braille and many excellent relief maps.(13)

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13. Brockett, L. P., "Institutions for the Instruction of the Blihd," National Magazine, May, 1857.

Tangible Systems of Reading Developed in Europe

Between the beginning of modern history and the age of Valentine Hauy very few thoughtful people believed that the blind were incapable of being trained or educated. Besides the outstanding examples of accomplished sightless people mentioned earlier in this thesis there were countless blind individuals living their quiet and uneventful lives who showed by feats of memory or observation that they were not beyond the blessings of learning. One of the obstacles which stood in the path of their being educated was general indifference toward them by the sighted world. However, after interest was aroused in their plight the main problem facing educators was that of giving them a means for performing the customary and necessary steps in education--reading, writing, studying geography with maps, reading music, and solving mathematical problems or equations. It was this problem that the teachers of the late 18th and early 19th centuries attacked by virtually starting from nothing.

The amount of success achieved by institutions for the education of the blind has been to a great extent dependent upon the legibility, practicability, and expense of the educational aids and reading systems used. Pioneers both in Europe and the United States were aware this would be the case. For that reason they devoted much time and great expense to developing better systems and devices. In the following pages I shall discuss briefly the types and aids developed in Europe

before the middle of the 19th century. These were the foundation stones upon which American educators eventually built the present machinery for educating and training the blind. By knowing these we can better understand the nature of many of the problems faced by such men as S. G. Howe and Julius Friedlander. Also, by understanding these problems we can more readily appreciate the successes or failures of American educators.

As we have seen, although Abbe Hauy was the first to attempt systematically to educate the blind, he was not the first to consider the problem of furnishing the blind with a legible reading or writing system. We know that as early as 1770 Maria von Paradis, the well educated and accomplished daughter of an advisor to the Austrian emperor, was pricking letters upon paper with a strong pin. We also know that she used a board on which were raised lines and musical notations.(1) In 1780 M. Weissenbourg, a blind man of Manheim, published relief maps. However they were of no value in teaching the blind at that date. When Hauy began the education of Lesueur it was only natural for him to attempt to teach his pupil to read a raised form of the print then in use in France. He soon discoovered that Lesueur could easily read by touch the raised characters which he placed upon thin wooden tablets. However, the overall impracticability of this system was soon seen; entire books could never be published in raised letters on wood. One day purely through accident Hauy came to realize

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1. Ross, Ishbel, op. cit., p. 92.

that characters embossed upon heavy paper could be read by touch. He discovered this when Lesueur, after having lifted an engraved card from Hauy's desk, ran his fingers over the engraving and remarked that he could recognize various letters. Shortly thereafter the Abbe perfected the process by which regular printing type was impressed heavily enough upon thick paper to leave its embossed shape thereon. He selected the Italian, Illyrian, or itallic type as the best for the use of the blind. As later educators were to point out, this type was not generally or easily distinguishable.(2)

In the twenty years after the death of Valentine Hauy in 1822 there appeared virtually dozens of tangible alphabets for the blind. Some were merely modifications of earlier ones, some selected a different printing type as most easily recognized by the blind, and others were based upon completely different principles. It was during this time that arbitrary systems began appearing. They were opposed strongly on the grounds that they would further separate the blind from their sighted friends and families. In the following pages I shall give a very short account of the history and characteristics of the major systems invented in Europe before 1850. The reader may gather some idea as to the difficulty of reading each by briefly comparing them visually.

2. Illingworth, W. H., op. cit., p. 7.

MR. ALSTON'S SYSTEM
GLASGOW

A B C D E F G H I
A B C D E F G H I
J K L M N O P Q R
J K L M N O P Q R
S T U V W X Y Z &
S T U V W X Y Z &
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 0

, ; : . – ! ? ()

To avoid confusion let us begin with the system invented or developed by Alston of Scotland. He merely embossed Roman capital letters upon heavy paper. These letters, however, were stripped of all serifs and hairlines. Alston discovered that the blind were able to distinguish more accurately between letters of plain appearance; hairlines and other decorative marks were confusing, especially on letters which ordinarily resemble one another. This system with a few modifications was adopted by Julius Friedlander, first principal of the school for the blind founded in Philadelphia. The main objections to Alston's type may be applied to almost any embossed print; the letters were not large enough and were not embossed boldly enough to be recognized readily by the blind. The most outstanding advantage was that the system could be learned easily by those who had once learned to read regular print, that is by those who had not always been sightless. Another advantage which was considered important at the time the system was developed was that it could be read easily by sighted teachers. Unfortunately, it was the blind and not the sighted teachers who were attempting to learn to read by touch.

SPECIMEN OF TYPES FOR THE USE OF THE BLIND,
DESIGNED BY THE REV. W. TAYLOR, OF YORK.

The object of this Society is to prepare a Series of Standard Books.

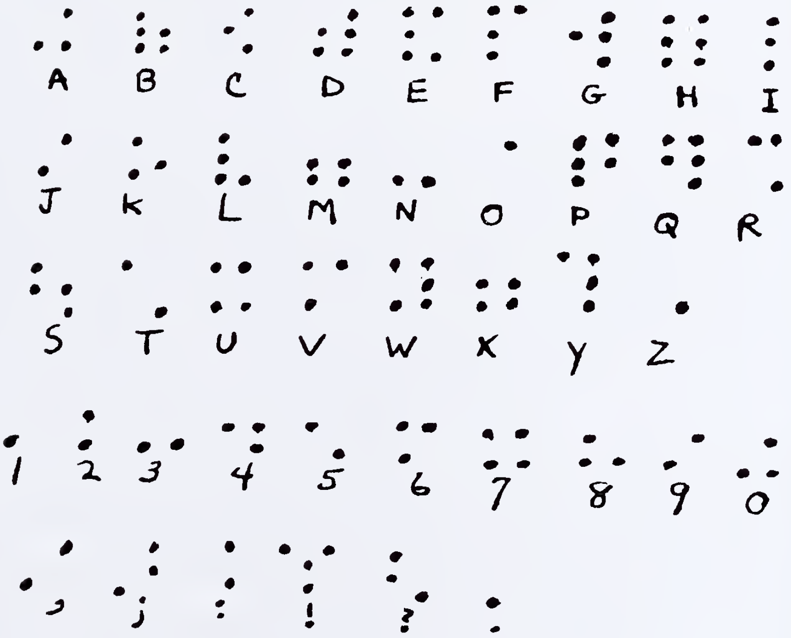
TYPE USED BY W. M. WATTS OF CROWN COURT. TEMPLE BAR, IN PRINTING BOOKS FOR SWEDEN.

The great and increasing attention that is paid to the intellectual and moral instruction of the Blind is one of the distinctive features of the progress of our age.

ÉCRITURE À L'USAGE DES AVEUGLES

PROCÉDÉ DE

MONS. L'ABBÉ CARTON : BRUGES

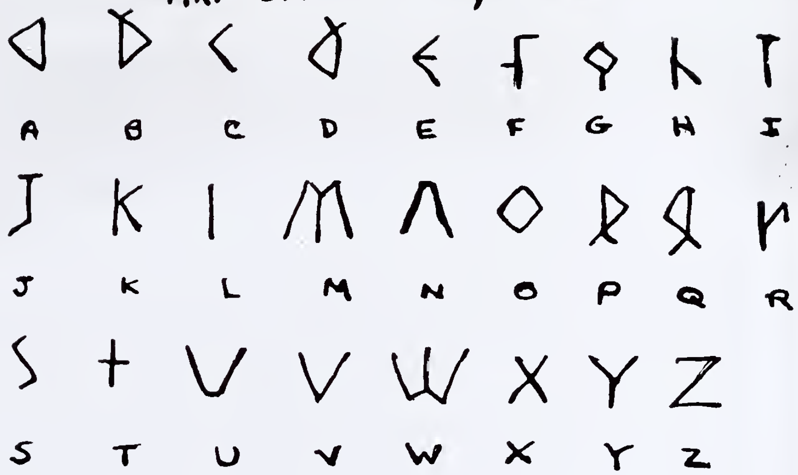


It should be noted that there were other systems devised which closely resembled Alston's in appearance. The main difference was the degree of angles composing the characters themselves. That is, systems such as those of the Rev. W. Taylor and Mr. Watts were fundamentally like Alston's, but their letters were either more angular in shape or more decorative. For this reason there is no need to discuss these in detail. The only fact of importance concerning them is that the fancier ones were less successful than the plain because they were not as easily read, especially by older blind people or by those whose fingers had become hardened through labor.

As previously stated, there was strong opposition to the use of arbitrary reading systems. However, it was realized by many that several of the systems based upon embossed print were not the most readily learned and read. For this reason Abbe Carton, Principal of L'institution des Sourde Muets et des Aveugles of Bruges, devised a system which he hoped would combine the best features of an arbitrary point system and an embossed line system. Accordingly, the outstanding feature of his system was the formation of Roman letters with dots rather than lines. As can be seen in the following diagram of Carton's system, several exceptions had to be made. It met with many of the objections which were leveled against other early systems; it was almost impossible for a blind student to write the characters on paper by himself. They were principally to be read and not written. However, printing books in them was very expensive, in addition to being wasteful of space.(3)

3. Johnson, Edmund C., Tangible Typography: or, How the Blind Read, p. 4.

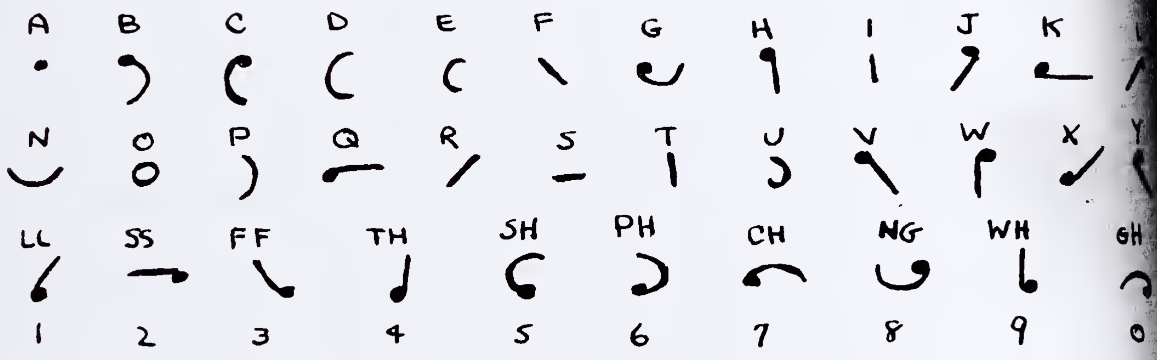
MR. GALL'S SYSTEM



In 1826 Mr. Gall, Superintendent of the Edinburgh Asylum for the lind, introduced his "angular" or "acute angle" system. This had as ts basis the regular Roman letter. However, because it was realized hat angles and plain figures were more quickly recognized than were rounded or decorated ones Gall made the letters of his system as angular as possible. In fact, in many cases the direction of an angle in some of the necessarily arbitrary characters determined what the letter itself was to be. For instance, A was an acute angle triangle with the angle turned toward the left, while B was an acute angle triangle with the angle toward the right. Although these figures and characters were more easily felt by a pupil they were often so nearly alike as to cause difficulty. First a pupil had to discover the shape of the figure and then decide which direction the determining angles were pointed. Thus two separate mental steps were necessary for reading Gall's characters. In spite of this, however, several books were printed in this medium in England and Scotland.(4)

4. "Education of the Blind," North American Review, July, 1833.

CHARACTERS USED FOR THE ALPHABET
IN
T.M. LUCAS'S EMBOSSED STENOGRAPHIC SYSTEM FOR THE USE OF TH



By 1834 it was realized that many of the existing tangible systems were greatly inadequate for educating the blind. Therefore, educators began considering new factors in attempting to find a superior system. They naturally weakened much of the opposition to arbitrary characters, which could contain improvements impossible in regular embossed print. Soon educators began seeing three great needs for the improvement of reading and writing systems: to make letters differ as much as possible in form or shape, to adapt those shapes most alike to letters which never follow one another immediately--for instance P and Q--to represent the letters appearing most frequently by signs occupying the least amount of space.(5) As a result in 1838 Mr. Lucas, principal of the school for the blind at Bristol, and Mr. Frere, principal of the school at London and later Blackheath, introduced stenographic and phonetic systems respectively. As can be seen, both were entirely arbitrary. Lucas type was little more than a dot with a line running from it in various directions. The direction of the line and whether or not it was connected with a dot determined what the letter would be. Although it was favored by several British societies for the blind, this type was very difficult to read by touch; it was difficult in many cases to determine whether a line was connected with a dot. Also, for reading it the two separate mental processes mentioned in relation to Gall's type were required.

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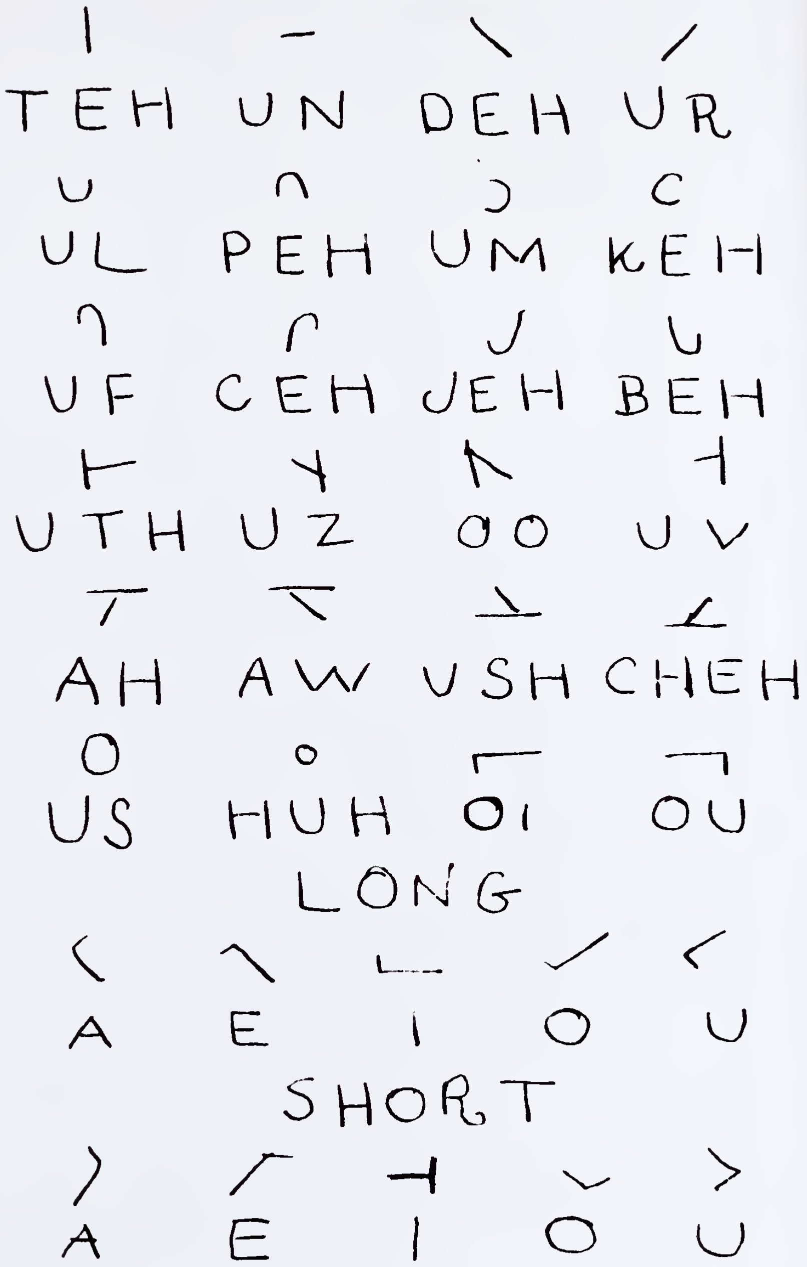
5. North American Review, July, 1833.

MR. J. H. FRERE'S
SHORTHAND ALPHABET FOR THE BLIND
ON THE
PHONETIC PRINCIPLE



It can be seen that Frere's system was also arbitrary. In it were introduced two principles which were to be of great importance in the formation of the tangible arbitrary line type which became most popular before mid-century. This was the return line principle. According to this the reader, after completing one line of reading matter, would merely move his finger directly downward to the end of the next line. This line was embossed in such a way that the reader would read it from right to left rather than from left to right. Naturally then, for the principle to be of value alternate lines were read in this way. Embossed brackets were placed at the end of each line to guide the finger to the beginning of the following line. It should be noted that the characters themselves were not actually reversed. That is, a figure which curved from right to left when being read from left to right was not reversed to point the opposite direction when being read from right to left, as were letters in some of the other systems.(6)

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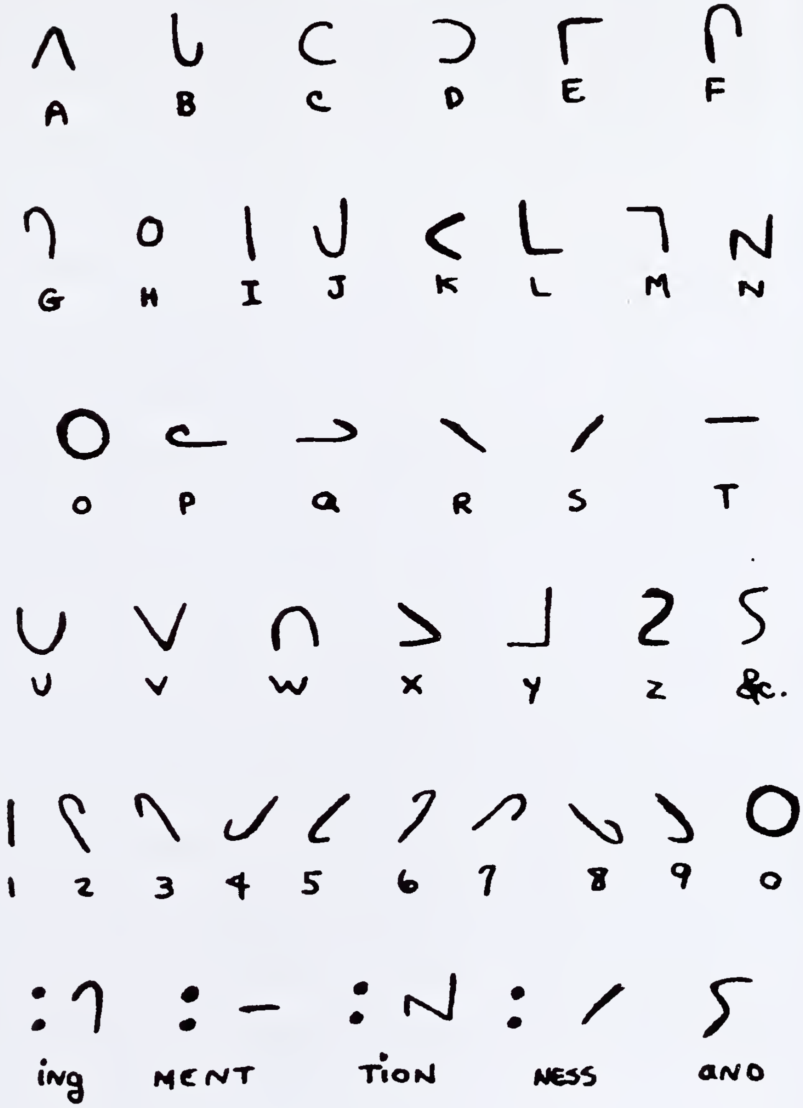
6. Armitage, T. R., The Education and Employment of the Blind: What it has been, is, and ought to be, p. 3.

SPECIMEN OF THE ALPHABET
USED BY
MR. MOON
IN PRINTING BOOKS FOR THE BLIND



The arbitrary system which was accepted most widely until the introduction and development of point systems such as Braille was devised by Dr. William Moon, Principal of the school at Brighton. The importance of this lay in the fact that Moon himself was blind. This meant that he realized what the blind with relatively acute sense of touch could and could not feel and recognize easily. One of the principal objections to most of the systems developed before 1850 was that they were theoretically perfect in print but not in embossed form. Educators could not realize that a system could seem excellent but be absolutely useless for the blind. Dr. Moon fashioned his system as nearly as possible like Roman characters. However, this is difficult to see upon examination because Moon understood the importance of making letters seem as unlike one another as possible. He also introduced his type in three sizes; previously many blind pupils were unable to distinguish embossed characters because of their small size. From Frere Dr. Moon copied the return line principle and the guiding brackets for each line. Because of its size and its great boldness or clarity of embossing Moon type became the best reading medium for either the elderly blind or the blind whose hands had become toughened by manual work. The main objection to it was that it could not be easily written. Only through the use of stereotype plates could it be quickly and strongly embossed.(7)

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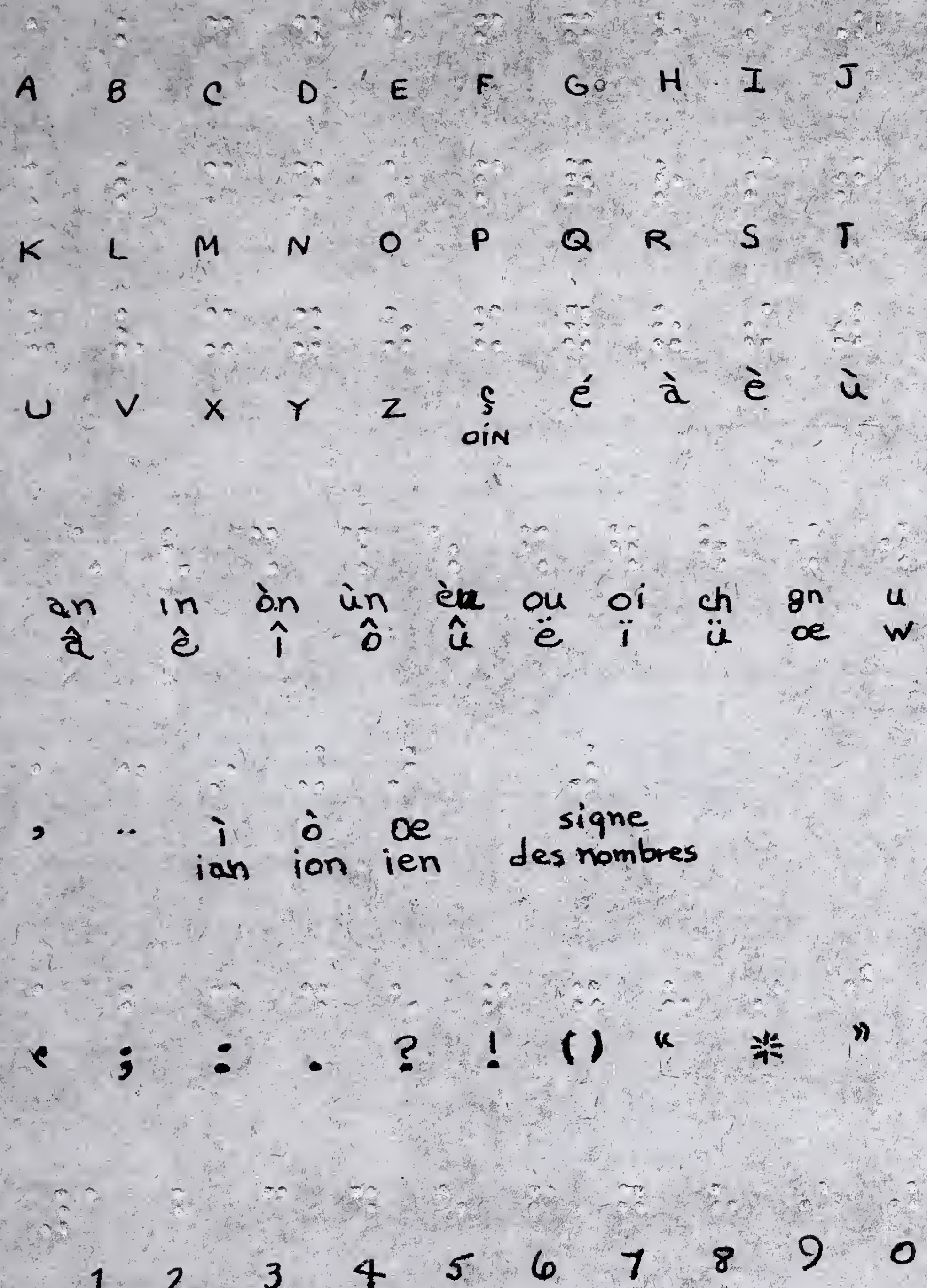
7. Armitage, T. R., op. cit., p. 4.

ORIGINAL FRENCH BRAILLE



The year 1829 saw the modification and perfection of an arbitrary point system which has since then revolutionized the field of education for the blind. This system was perfected by Louis Braille a very frail, twenty-year-old, blind instructor at the Royal Institution for Blind Youth. While himself a student at the institution Braille realized the need of a satisfactory system for noting music; he was interested primarily in music. In 1825 he asked permission of M. Barbier, a former artillery officer of Napoleon Bonaparte, to experiment with a writing system which the French officer had developed in 1808 for sending secret commands by night. This was a phonetic system based upon twelve tangible dots. Barbier had offered it to Mr. Guillie, Superintendent of the Paris school in 1820, but Guillie had rejected it in favor of his own "improvement" of Valentine Hauy's Italian letter. Braille disliked it mainly because it required a cipher for decoding. He also disliked it because the twelve dots when placed in two vertical parallel lines covered too large an area for one to feel without moving his finger slightly to cover all twelve. For this reason he finally reduced the number to six, a number which was in the area of acute perception of a single finger. He then formed the first ten letters of the alphabet by using no more than the top four dots of the vertical parallel rows of three each. Next he completed the alphabet bysystematically adding first one of the lower dots and then the other to the ten letters first devised. We may see mathematically that under this system there are sixty-three possible combinations of dots. Since the age of Louis Braille the remaining thirty-seven possible combinations

have been designated as punctuation marks and contractions for commonly used combinations of letters.

It should be noted that Braille was not immediately accepted by European educators. In 1834 M. Pignier of Braille's own institution rejected it. However, Braille further developed it and taught it to his pupils at night until his death in 1852. By then many of its great advantages, especially the ease with which it could be written and used for music notation by the blind had become obvious.(8)

8. Ross, Ishbel, op. cit., p. 130.

Before closing a discussion of reading systems invented in Europe during the first half of the 19th century we must briefly describe the medium invented by Messrs. Macbeath and Milue, two blind men of the Glasgow Asylum. This consisted of knotted string; the positions of the knots in relation to one another and their size determined the character desired. Naturally, this could be learned by anyone with the intelligence to learn the principle of the reading process, however, it was perhaps the most impracticable system devised. According to Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe a chapter of the New Testament in this medium would form a ball of string the size of an eighteen pound shot and the entire Bible would require a storeroom the size of a church. Another objection was that a student, in order to find a desired section of material, would have to unroll the entire ball of string until he arrived at the desired chapter. The general importance of the string alphabet, which was never adopted by any schools outside Glasgow, lay in the fact that it was an attempt by the blind themselves to create a system which could be distinguished by the blind everywhere.(9)

Thur far we have discussed only reading systems. We must not forget that education has always consisted of more than mere reading. For instance, mathematics, music, and geography were considered essential by the early educators of the blind. It was natural, therefore, that many systems should be devised for facilitating these studies.

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9. North American Review, July, 1833.

By 1830 there was no satisfactory method by which the blind could write and thus express their thoughts to one another or to sighted friends. Many were taught the use of a pen and a ridged tablet. The ridges or grooves on the tablet created raised lines on writing paper when it was impressed upon them. Of course, the obvious fault in this system lay in that pupils were unable to read what they had written. Also, they were unable to correspond with one another by this medium. Other blind pupils in Europe were taught to write by pricking letters on paper with a pin. The principal objection to this was that it was pitifully slow.

Much time and effort was spent trying to invent satisfactory relief maps for the study of geography. The system in widespread use until the middle of the century was that of bending wire and placing it carefully on the lines of a printed map, then gluing another printed map over the wire. Unfortunately, this was very slow and expensive. Another system briefly used was that of printing maps with a very thick ink. It was soon discovered that the ink, if it were applied correctly, could not be felt accurately by the majority of the blind pupils. A few educators unsuccessfully attempted to spread fine sand on the ink of maps while they were drying in an attempt to make the lines more tangible. Many considered using relief maps made of wood, but at that time wood maps were entirely too difficult to produce.(10)

10. North American Review, July, 1833.

Perhaps most time and ingenuity was spent trying to devise aids for the study of mathematics by the blind. In Paris small cubes or types with a single number on one end were used. A student was compelled to search through his box of cubes in order to find a cube with the desired digit. The cubes were then placed in a slate, which was little more than a wooden board with holes in which the relief types were placed. In Scotland a system requiring only two different cubes was used. In this system the number was determined by the position of a single dot on one end of a cube. Thus by having a dot in the corner at one end of a square cube and by having a dot in the middle on one edge on the other end could the four odd and even numbers be written. The second cube had on one end a single dot in the center and the other end was blank. These represented 1 and zero. Finally, a system was invented which used two cubes with all the arabic numerals on all their faces. Many variations were made as time passed. Perhaps it is now easier for us to understand why much emphasis was put upon mental arithmetic.

Here we have seen the methods of reading, writing, etc. used by the forerunners of American educators of the blind. As will later be shown, the ingenius yankees across the Atlantic were to modify and dispose of many of these early attempts. Perhaps they thought as did Mr. E. C. Johnson when he said, "It would almost appear at first sight as though great ingenuity had been exerted to make reading difficult; but not withstanding its complications and its memoria technica, many persons read fluently by this system." (11)

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11. Johnson, Edmund C., op. cit., p. 16.

Chapter II

Early American Interest in the Handicapped

Although the first school for the education of the blind was not incorporated in the United States until 1829 it should not be thought that the movement which resulted in the founding of this institution began in the years immediately preceding 1829. As early as 1791 there had appeared in the Massachusetts Magazine an article entitled "An Account of Dr. Henry Moyes, the Blind Philosopher." The American Museum published in 1792 a review dealing with the powers of the other senses to replace the loss of vision. The Philadelphia Port Folio in 1806 printed a reasonably realistic and unemotional account of Dr. Thomas Blacklock, the blind poet and theologian.(1)

Interest in the handicapped did not take the form of only written discussions and reviews. Shortly after graduating from Dartmouth College M. Gallaudet became interested in the deaf. He reasoned that this class was not incapable of being educated. Had not a French Abbe thirty years before begun a school for educating children without sight? Had not institutions for training the deaf been established in Europe? With these in mind Gallaudet traveled to Europe after the end of the War of 1812 to study existing methods of teaching the deaf. Shortly after his return the American Asylum

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1. Best, Harry, The Blind: Their condition and the work being done for them in the U.S., p. 261.

for the Deaf was established in Hartford in 1817.(2) In order for the asylum to serve its purpose it was necessary for the New England states to determine the number of deaf within their borders. Since at that time everyone lacking one of the senses was considered equally handicapped, it was only natural that many blind persons were included in the public inquiry. Such surveys were made by New Hampshire in 1819, Pennsylvania in 1821, Vermont in 1825, Massachusetts and Connecticut the following year.(3) Arrangements were then made for the states in which deaf pupils lived to pay partially the expenses of educating them at the Hartford institution.

As we have already seen, there was a general interest in rehabilitating the handicapped before 1825, however it was not until 1826 that interest in establishing an institution for educating the blind in particular was stimulated. According to Dr. Edward Ellis Allen, one of the leaders in the field of training the handicapped, the factors which aroused interest in America in educating its blind were, A. the interest in the results of educating the deaf and mute, B. the coming to the conviction by the United States that all children should receive an education as a matter of public policy and private right, C. the promulgation of results of European efforts in the field.(4) It was then that Dr. John D. Fisher of Boston returned

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2. Tyler, Alice F., Freedom's Ferment--phases of American social history to 1860, p. 394.
3. Best, Harry, op. cit., p. 262.
4. Butler, Nicholas Murray, ed., Education in the United States, p. 769.

from Paris where he had been studying medicine. There he had seen and been impressed by the Royal Institution for Blind Youth, which was at that time under the superintendency of Dr. Pignier. In order to support his insistence that a similar school should be established in this country he brought several pieces of the handicraft made by the blind pupils.(5)

In Boston Dr. Fisher found the unexpected aid of the noted American historian, William H. Prescott. Prescott himself was almost blind as the result of an accident during his undergraduate career at Harvard. Both Fisher and Prescott worked hard and almost constantly to interest friends in educating the blind, an act which they considered invaluable. As private interest was increased through numerous meetings and discussions funds were raised to finance a survey of the number and condition of the blind of Massachusetts and New England. On February 10, 1829, at a meeting of the Boston citizens interested in founding a school for the sightless the results of the investigation were read. It was estimated that there were four hundred blind in Massachusetts alone and one thousand five hundred in all New England. Furthermore, it was estimated that one-fifth of these were under thirty years of age. This meant that the percentage of those within school age probably would be sufficient to merit establishing an educational institution for them.(6) During the following weeks the members of the famous Exchange Coffee House committee introduced to the

5. Perkins Institute, Public Document 27, October, 1871.
6. Best, Harry, *op. cit.*, p. 263.

Massachusetts Legislature a request for the incorporation of a school. On March 2 the Assembly appointed a commission whose duty it was to draft formally the conditions of incorporation. Only two days later the New England Asylum for the Blind was incorporated officially. Petitioners for incorporation were J. D. Fisher, T. H. Perkins, R. Rantoul, T. Sedgwick, Stephen Phillips, W. Appleton, S. A. Eliot, Amos Lawrence. For the institution there was to be a board of twelve trustees, eight to be chosen by the corporation and four to be publicly appointed. There was to be no restriction as to number of paying students the school could receive, but state would educate no more than thirty. Finally, at first there was no age limitation.(7) Next a committee was appointed to make a more thorough study of the number and condition of blind in Massachusetts. When town selectmen responded slowly, if at all, to the request by the investigating committee the clergy was asked to assist by reporting all available information about the sightless in their parishes.

The incorporation of the New England Asylum for the Blind in 1829 did not immediately solve the problem of educating New England's sightless. Between 1829 and 1831 virtually no progress was made toward actually establishing a school; Dr. Fisher was unable to find a man

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7. Schwartz, Harold, Samuel Gridley Howe--Social Reformer--1801-1876, p. 78.

sufficiently willing and qualified to receive this responsibility. The major positive step forward was the granting by the Legislature of Massachusetts in 1830 of a formal charter for the new institution's operation. These were the circumstances in 1831 when Dr. Fisher accidentally met a former classmate, Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe, on the Boston street. For reasons which I shall discuss below Dr. Fisher considered Howe sufficiently intelligent and bold to perform the task of establishing an institution for blind children. Accordingly he asked Howe almost jokingly if he would accept the position. To his great surprise the young Dr. Howe answered in the affirmative.(8)

Let us now break the narrative to give a very brief biography of Samuel G. Howe. By knowing his life until he met Dr. Fisher on the street we may know much about the temperament and character of the man in whose hands such a great task was placed. Howe was born in Boston in 1801 of sturdy New England parents. He spent his boyhood no differently from most Boston children of the era. As a lad he attended the Boston Latin School and then Brown University. At Brown he loved poetry, Latin, and literature. However, although he was not a poor student, he evidently was more interested in playing practical jokes on classmates and professors. After graduating from Brown he entered Harvard to study medicine. When he completed medical

8. Schwartz, Harold, op. cit., p. 68.

school in 1824 he was not ready to settle and begin a practice in Boston. Instead of going to sea or doing any of the other things which many similar young gentlemen of his day did Howe left America to aid the Greeks in their revolt against their Turkish rulers. In Greece he served as both a military doctor and a tough guerilla; he became as adept with the musket as the scalpel. In 1827 he returned on a very brief visit to the United States to secure aid for the struggling rebels in the one-sided contest. When he departed for Greece again he had sixty thousand dollars and great quantities of aid in other forms--food, clothing, farm implements, etc. He next established on the Corinthian peninsula a small colony or village for Greek exiles and refugees. From absolute necessity Howe performed all the important functions in the village--that of mayor, doctor, teacher, judge, and relief agent. However, in 1830 after contracting a swamp fever he was compelled by his health to leave the Greek marshes and return to America. He passed through Paris in time to be a witness at the July Revolution.(9)

Upon arriving in America Howe was not certain as to the profession he would follow; he was certain that he did not want to enter the practice of medicine. After failing to secure an American consulate

9. Howe, Julia Ward, Memoir of Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe, pp. 1-12.

in Greece he accepted the editorship of a Philadelphia Whig newspaper. It was shortly after he changed his mind and resigned his position that he met Dr. Fisher in Boston and accepted the task of organizing the New England Asylum for the Blind.(10)

Since Howe had had no experience teaching the blind, one of his first acts was a trip to Europe in 1831. He hoped to observe teaching methods, reading systems, educational aids, and the general curriculum in the existing European schools. However, he was shocked when he saw the prevailing conditions. In the first place, he strongly disliked the charitable character of Europe's education for the blind. He also strongly disliked the asylum aspect of many of the schools, especially those of England and Scotland. He believed that in general the schools were attempting too much to teach mechanical arts and manual trades rather than to educate students intellectually. He was shocked generally by the inefficient methods being used in the teaching of geography, reading, writing, math, and languages. He received the impression that many of the schools were being operated illiberally, ostentatiously, and inefficiently. It was then that he decided European schools generally were "beacons to warn rather than lights to guide." In most schools both Howe and his suggestions for

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10. Schwartz, Harold, op. cit., pp. 65-68.

improvement were accepted coldly. It should be noted finally that Dr. Howe was greatly impressed by the music training program at the Paris school. He believed that music was one of the fields for which a blind pupil could prepare himself while in school. Furthermore, he considered it the single area in which any of the European schools were preparing their students to support themselves independently after graduating. Although Howe learned principally the things not to do from the continental institutions he brought with him when he returned to the United States two blind teachers who had received their educations or training in the European schools. These were Eduoard Trencheri of Paris, who was to teach the liberal arts, and M. Pringle, an Edinburgh mechanic who was to teach manual training and the mechanical arts.(11)

11. Ross, Ishbel, op. cit., p. 141.

Early Years of the New England Institution for the Education of the Blind

In July of 1832 Dr. Howe returned to Boston with his newly acquired staff and gave the trustees of the New England Institution the results of his observations. He instructed them as to how the new institution should be administered governmentally. He then turned to the task of preparing himself and his father's home for the actual opening of the school. In order to understand better the condition of the blind he blindfolded himself and performed all the activities comprising an average day. In August Howe and his small staff officially opened the school at 140 Pleasant Street with seven pupils ranging in age from six to twenty years. The task then faced was that of gathering students for the school and developing a balanced curriculum with the funds available.(1) Howe realized that the school should have more than seven pupils, since the survey of 1829 had revealed that there were about five hundred blind people in Massachusetts, one-fifth of whom were under thirty years of age and in poor economic circumstances. It was estimated at the same time that there were about one thousand six hundred fifty blind in New England, of whom the same percentage was under thirty. Concerning

1. Schwartz, Harold, Samuel Gridley Howe, p. 84.

funds, the institution had been granted by the Massachusetts Legislature in 1830 along with its charter some 1,500 dollars for its support; this was the unspent remainder of the amount granted by the state for the education of deaf-mutes at the Hartford asylum.(2)

During the first four months of the life of the new institution what many considered to be miracles were wrought. The youthful principal began by teaching his pupils to read tangible letters which were actually string gummed on pasteboard. The many citizens who were interested in the new undertaking were virtually amazed by the rapid progress being made at the little school in the home of Dr. Howe's father. However, in January of 1833 the original appropriation by the Massachusetts Legislature was expended. It was then that Howe, who in later life was to be a great persuasive speaker, turned to "showmanship" to replenish the empty treasury. He began by taking his pupils to the Legislature for an exhibition of the progress which had been made. The display of learning impressed upon the legislators that educating the blind was a very sound, wise, and humanitarian project. Accordingly the Legislature appropriated 6000 dollars to be used for the education of twenty poor, blind students.(3) Perhaps

2. North American Review, July, 1830.
3. Richards, Laura E., Samuel Gridley Howe, p. 76.

it was speeches with a tone similar to the one below that loosened the purse strings of the Massachusetts Legislature and more than a sozen others during the following forty years.

> "People generally imagine it must be very difficult to teach the blind; but they are wrong. To teach the blind, is the easiest thing in the world. And I will venture to say, that a class of blind children, from the Blind Institution in this city, will learn as much, in a given time, of history, geography, astronomy, or the languages, as any class that could be selected from the high schools and academies; and that, of mathematics and music, they will learn more. To teach the blind is easy,--to educate them is altogether another matter.
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> "A comparison is sometimes drawn between the situation and instruction of deaf-mutes and the blind; but there is no other resemblance, that that the modus operandi is different from the one pursued with seeing children. The advantages are altogether on the side of the blind; for the deaf-mutes, a language is to be invented; and when it is invented, perfected, and learned, how inadequate is it to the full and free communication of ideas! But with the blind, there is no such obstacle--the medium is a common one, and we have the most free and illimitable interchange of thought and feeling. The moral and religious feelings of the deaf-mutes are generally dormant when they enter institutions for their education; while the blind differ not from seeing people, and partake of the stamp of those with whom they have associated.
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> "If you wish to teach a deaf-mute geography, for instance, you must first teach him language. With a blind boy, you have only to begin to describe the country; you give him his lesson orally, instead of his reading and studying in a book. You teach a blind boy in the same way you would teach a seeing boy--except that you read or lecture to the

blind boy, while you let the seeing boy read for himself. The only difference is in the artificial aids,--books, maps, diagrams, slates, etc--and these are small matters. You have only to imagine that all your books, maps, slates, etc., were taken from your school, the room darkened, and you required to keep on teaching your scholars; you will then conceive, at once, how the blind are taught. If you wish to inform them the difference between an acute and an obtuse angle, and fail to do so by words, you would mark it upon the palms of their hands, or you would have the figure stamped on a piece of paper, and give it to them to feel. Now, what you would do with your scholars in the dark, we have to do with the blind in the light. Such is the general principle; as to the quo modo, it is of less consequence.

"And yet, while institutions for the education of the deaf and dumb have long been established, and are rapidly increasing, those for the blind are but just commencing. Thank God, however, the work has commenced; and in a community like ours it cannot but go on. Already have two of our institutions placed themselves on a footing with--nay, I may safely say, in some respects, have excelled--the best and oldest in Europe; and there is nothing more ardently to be desired, than to see them multiplied and perfected. It is but four years since the American public have learned that the blind could be educated; it is but four years since a call has been made upon their sympathies and charities in behalf of this interesting class, and yet the call has been answered promptly and generously. The work has been begun with zeal and resolution; more progress has been made here than in the last twenty years elswehere; and there is now, for the first time, a rational prospect of a select and valuable library being soon printed for

> the blind. Already has the best of books, the New Testament, been finished, of which only short extracts had been printed abroad; and hope says, it is but the earnest of many more. That our country may be the first to discharge its duty to those who are rendered its dependents is to be ardently desired by every patriot and philanthropist." (4)

According to one observer, the new school crept along on all fours economically for the first six months of its existence. The appropriation by the Legislature did not solve its economic problem. To secure additional funds Howe and the trustees decided to appeal directly to the public of Massachusetts through exhibitions similar to the one presented before the state assembly. To this end the hero of the Greek revolution toured the state with his best pupils. This brought immediate response from the public. The women of Salem and Marblehead presented a bazaar which resulted in a profit of 2,980 dollars for the struggling school. The women of Boston, not to be outdone by the women of Salem and Marblehead, then staged a great fancy fair in Fanueil Hall. Thanks to the efforts of many of Boston's leading families this fair netted a profit for the institute of 11,400 dollars.

By 1833 the student body, which had grown to thirty-four, had outgrown its original quarters, 140 Pleasant Street. After seeing

4. Sanborn, F. B., Dr. S. G. Howe, pp. 141-143.

the impressive exhibition given by Howe and his pupils before the state assembly Colonel Thomas H. Perkins offered the school his mansion on Pearl Street. He added the condition that fifty thousand dollars must be raised for maintainance before he would permit his offer to be accepted. From the sources previously discussed and from countless other private donations and bequests Howe raised the necessary amount within six weeks. In the fall of 1833 the school moved into its new quarters. During the year the school received a total of 61,279.43 from all sources; at the end of the year it had 33,000 dollars to its credit.(5) A part of the Perkins Report very well summarizes the first year of the life of the New England Institution for the Education of the Blind.

> "When, a twelvemonth ago, we undertook the management of its affairs, it was unknown to the public; a doubtful experiment on the feasibility of educating six poor blind children was in operation; the appropriation by the State was insufficient for their support; the subscriptions were nearly exhausted, and, within one month from our appointment, we found the institution to be absolutely in debt. Now the scene is entirely changed; the institution has attracted public notice, and gained public favor; it is in the enjoyment of liberal patronage from this and the surrounding States; it possesses a considerable fund of property: its five and thirty happy inmates inhabit a splendid and airy mansion, with extensive grounds, and everything necessary for their health, comfort, and education; and preparations are made for the reception of as many more.

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5. Schwartz, Harold, op. cit., p. 87.

"In order to accommodate a large number of pupils, it was necessary to make some alterations in the premises in Pearl street; and, the stables being of brick and built in the best manner, it was concluded to convert them into school-rooms and workshops. It was also necessary to provide a large play-ground; and the estate in the rear of the mansion house, and fronting on Atkinson street, was purchased for the sum of fourteen thousand dollars; and thus the institution became owners of the whole square from Pearl to Atkinson street. All the arrangements having been made, and the estate on Atkinson street having been laid out as a play-ground, the inmates took possession in September, 1833, and the institution was advertised as ready for the reception of pupils from all parts of the country. Since that time, the number has gradually increased, and many more are expected; the whole number admitted has been thirty-eight; the actual number is thirty-four; one having left voluntarily, two having been discharged on account of illness, and one, from a neighboring State, discharged for want of funds for his support.

"There are now twenty-four from Massachusetts, four from New Hampshire, two from Connecticut, one from Rhode Island, one from New York, one from Ohio, and one from Virginia. Three of the pupils from this State are beyond the age stipulated in the act of incorporation, at which the Governor may send pupils by his warrant; one of these pays her own expenses, the other two are at the charge of the institution, as is also one from the State of Ohio. It will be seen that more pupils have been received from the State of Massachusetts than was strictly required by the terms of the grant; we have, however, considered it our duty rather to extend the advantages of the institution to as many pupils as possible, than to accumulate funds." (6)

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6. Sanborn, F. S., op. cit., pp. 138-139.

DR. HOWE'S SYSTEM
BOSTON, UNITED STATES

here rests his head upon the lap of earth
a youth, to fortune & to fame unknown
fair science frowned not on his humble bir
& melancholy marked him for her own.

printing had not been changed since the time of Abbe Hauy; he was shocked by the generally poor education received there primarily due to the lack of a more legible reading system. For this reason he devised what was to be known as Howe Type, or the Boston line letter. This was superior to most of the other line systems in that it was based upon the Roman letter but reduced greatly in size and thickness of embossing. Also, Howe's letters were trimmed of many unnecessary decorative lines and curves. Finally, all letters were reduced in such a way that none extended below the writing line, G for example. Although we may discredit Howe's claim that with his system he could emboss seven hundred eighty seven characters in an area of fifty six square inches while Paris and Edinburgh could emboss only four hundred eight and five hundred ninety respectively in the same space, we may admit that by 1840 he was putting at least one-fifth more on a page than were European presses.(8)

Within two years after the foundation of the New England Institution Howe established the first press for embossing books in America. He was convinced that an educational system would not be able to function properly if there were not a cheap, efficient, and rapid method for printing. However, in spite of his great abilities as a "showman"

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8. Schwartz, Harold, op. cit., p. 95.

and a persuader he was unable to secure financial aid for his press from the states. For this reason he appealed to many private organizations. In 1835 he received 200 dollars from the Park Street Church, 1000 dollars from the Massachusetts Bible Society, 800 dollars from the New York Female Bible Society, and 1000 dollars from the American Bible Society.(9) With this sum he printed in 1836 an eight volume copy of the Old Testament. Its price was 20 dollars per set, while the Old Testament in 19 volumes in Europe cost 40 dollars a set. Howe also published books for history, classics, geography, spelling, music, and grammar. Since his press received no regular appropriation, it was often silent for long periods.

It was Howe's dream to establish some day a federally supported press for the blind. To this end he appeared before Congress in 1836-1837 in an attempt to persuade it that the need for embossed books was sufficient to merit support for such a press. In a letter to Dr. Sewall of Washington in 1837 Howe stated his views on the subject and told of his efforts:

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9. Richards, Laura E., ed., Letters and Journals of Samuel Gridley Howe, p. 28.

> "I have but small hope that Congress will do anything for the unfortunate blind. I ought to have remained, and been a thorn in the side and a bore in the ears of members until I had importuned them into action; but I could not. The object, however, is too good, the stake too important, and my feelings too deeply engaged in it to let me abandon it without another effort; and you will probably see me in Washington another winter." (10)

Unfortunately for the blind of America in some respects, Congress rejected his plea. Howe was to try again in 1845 with the aid of several talented blind students, but he again met with a negative response then.(11)

In the first decade as principal of the New England Institution for the Education of the Blind Dr. Howe kept before him in his actions and policies his motto, "Obstacles are things to be overcome." For this reason he was not afraid to stray from the paths made by the European schools in educational and psychological matters. He boldly introduced hand writing for the blind by means of grooved paper rather than by a metal frame; he ignored the belief that the blind should be taught only vocational training and he launched a full program of study in music and the liberal arts and natural philosophy. He was sufficiently realistic, however, to realize that a manual training shop should be established. Since he believed that the blind were unable to compete

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10. Richards, Laura E., ed., op. cit., pp. 29-30.
11. Richards, Laura E., Samuel Gridley Howe, p. 85.

successfully with the sighted in many of the very specialized mechanical arts, his vocational training program consisted primarily of such studies as mat making, broom making, and chair caning. In the academic field he introduced a new system for making relief maps. According to this method lines were embossed upon paper from metal plates, rather than being embossed by being impressed firmly upon wires glued on another map. He encouraged the study of music to the extent that by 1837 there were thirteen pianos and one organ in the institution; by 1839 forty-five of sixty pupils played the piano and eighteen played the organ.(12)

Finally, Howe administered as a stern but generally sensible principal. It was his belief that self-reliance was essential for normal human development. For this reason he urged parents and friends of the blind to permit them to learn of the physical world principally through actual experience. This he also carried over into his philosophy of education; he insisted that students would learn more easily if they were allowed to learn as much as possible for themselves. Of course, such a belief automatically meant that he favored no pampering or special treatment for blind children. In the letter included below we see his views well stated:

12. Schwartz, Harold, _op. cit._, p. 88.

> "It is often one of the parent's hardest lessons, to learn to yield up timely and gracefully the authority which was once necessarily despotic, but which should soon become responsible, and soon after be abdicated altogether. The inner man will not go long on all fours, any more than will the outer man; it will get up, and insist upon walking about. If it cannot go openly and boldly, it will go slyly, and this of course makes it cowardly. You may as well refuse to let out the growing boy's trousers, as refuse larger and larger liberty to his growing individuality." (13)

Although a wing was added to the Pearl Street home of the institution in 1835 it had become too small for the student enrollment by 1839. Since the surrounding property was too expensive to purchase for expansion, Howe sought permission of Colonel T. H. Perkins, who had given the institution the building originally, to sell it and buy another. After permission was granted Howe selected a stately building in south Boston, Mt. Washington, to be the school's new home. In appreciation to Col. Perkins the school on March 15, 1839, was renamed Perkins Institution and Massachusetts Asylum for the Blind. In May it moved to its new address, where it remained until 1912.(14)

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13. Richards, Laura E., op. cit., p. 113.
14. Howe, Julia Ward, Memoir of Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe, p. 40.

In this chapter thus far we have discussed the early interest in the blind and the fruits of the interest, the incorporation of Perkins Institution. We have dealt with Perkins because it was the first school actually incorporated, although it was not in fact the first institution of its type to begin operation in this country. Finally, we have briefly traced its early development in an attempt to show how its curriculum and general atmosphere differed from those of its European predecessors. The ways in which Samuel Gridley Howe's methods, attitudes, and activities differed from those of his European predecessors and many of his contemporaries have given us the insight to understand why he was to begin the life of a "missionary for the cause of the blind" after setting Perkins Institution in full operation and securing it as much as possible against future evils. Although Dr. Howe was the most energetic individual in bringing about the later establishment of many schools for the blind, it should be noted that he and Perkins Institution were not the only guiding lights in the early 1830's. Let us now turn to a short discussion of the two schools which immediately preceded or succeeded the Boston institution in establishment.

The New York Institution for the Education of the Blind

We know that there was interest in educating the blind in New York as early as 1827. In fact, letters were exchanged with Edinburgh, Scotland concerning teaching methods and educational aids. It was not until 1831, however, that Dr. Samuel Ackerly and Dr. Samuel Wood petitioned the Legislature to incorporate an institution for educating the blind. They were responsible in March of the following year for Dr. John D. Russ' taking three blind boys from the alms houses with the intention of teaching them. Soon these boys, whose number almost immediately increased to five, amazed the New Yorkers of the period by learning to read embossed letters, write, work arithmetic problems, and trace geographic boundaries. This quickly attracted public attention and several fairs were soon staged for the benefit of the new school. Between 1833 and 1838 9,075 dollars was raised through such fairs; one alone provided 2,173 dollars.(1) The early success of the little school resulted in its formal incorporation in late 1832.

As 1833 progressed the institution extended its roots even deeper. The student enrollment had risen to sixteen, a fact which necessitated

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1. Best, Harry, The Blind: Their condition and the work being done for them in the U.S., p. 266.

the purchase of larger quarters. In May of 1834 the state agreed to provide 130 dollars for the support and education of four additional pupils, however it was soon realized that this sum would have to be granted for more than four students. By the end of the year this provision covered thirty-six children, thirty-two of whom were taken equally from the eight senatorial districts. By 1836, when the enrollment had reached fifty, the Legislature raised the provision to support eight from each district. At the same time it granted the school 12,000 dollars on the condition that it should raise an additional 8000, a condition which the school had little difficulty meeting. It should be noted here that 1836 also saw New Jersey appropriate 2000 dollars for the education of its blind children in the New York institution. Finally, New York in 1839 found itself compelled to appropriate funds for the education of sixteen blind children from each senatorial district.(2) Thus we have seen the early years of the first school for the blind actually opened in the United States.

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2. National Magazine, May, 1857.

Pennsylvania Institution for the Education of the Blind

To Philadelphia must go the honor of being the first city to consider seriously educating its blind. As early as 1824 the Society of Friends was interested for humanitarian reasons in this class. However, it was not until 1829 that a positive act was made to this end; Robert Vaux, a Quaker, urged Dr. Joshua F. Fisher to observe during his proposed trip to Europe the methods and devices used by the school for the blind in Paris. While doing this Dr. Fisher met Julius R. Friedlander, a Silesian who had become interested in the blind as a result of acting as tutor in the house of the Prince of Furstenberg. The result of this fortunate meeting was the arrival of Friedlander in Philadelphia during the fall of 1832.(1)

The ship on which Friedlander came to North America had hardly landed before he began working for the establishment of a school for the blind according to his stipulations. He first attempted, with the aid of the enthusiastic Vaux, to convince many of Philadelphia's influential citizens of the soundness and practicability of his hopes and plans. In order to publicize his views more widely he printed

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1. The Seer, March, 1941.

and distributed a pamphlet entitled, "Observations on the Instruction of Blind Persons."(2) He next took from an alms house one blind child, who was to be his first pupil. The success enjoyed by Friedlander in educating the child inspired a group of local philanthropists to draft a constitution for the desired school on February 21, 1833. Twelve days later, on March 5, the school was officially organized and Friedlander began teaching his first four students. By the end of the year the enrollment had risen to eleven.(3)

Although classes were begun in the spring of 1833 it was not until ten months later, January 27 of 1834, that the school gained a permanent footing. The Legislature appropriated as an endowment 10,000 dollars on the condition that another 20,000 dollars could be raised from private sources. As was the case in Boston and New York previously, this amount was raised easily through numerous fairs and student exhibitions. After the formal incorporation in January the school was free to develop much as its superintendent wished.

By the end of 1834 it was obvious that the original building and the financial appropriation, which had provided for the accomodation

2. Butler, Nicholas Murray, ed., Education in the United States.
3. Best, Harry, The Blind: Their condition and the work being done for them in the U.S., p. 268.

and education of ten blind children were no longer adequate. For this reason both funds and new quarters were sought. One fair staged for the benefit of Friedlander's school netted 9,039 dollars in 1836. The same year the students were moved into a 44,000 dollar new building. The demands upon the little school were further increased, however, when Delaware in 1835, New Jersey in 1836, and Maryland in 1837 arranged to send their blind pupils to Philadelphia to be educated. It is not difficult to see how students sent by these states, Pennsylvania, and Philadelphia, in addition to private paying pupils increased the enrollment by 1838 to fifty-four.(4)

Thus we have discussed the founding and the early growth of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Education of the Blind. It should be remarked that both this school and the New York institution, the third and first oldest schools to begin operating respectively, were established independently of one another and the New England Asylum. The only thing which the three had in common was the desire to improve the condition of the blind. It is also true that all three corresponded

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4. Best, Harry, op. cit., p. 267.

in some way with the existing European schools in order to learn of methods, educational aids, and general objectives. As far as personal relations between the founders of the American schools is concerned, we know only that Dr. S. G. Howe and Dr. J. D. Russ had become acquainted while both were taking part in the Greek revolution. Clearly this was long before either became interested in educating the sightless.

Chapter III

"The Need to Spread the Gospel"

We have seen in the preceding chapter that by 1845 the New England states, Pennsylvania, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland, and South Carolina had made provisions to have their blind educated in one of the institutions discussed. Although the existing schools did not prohibit the attendance of private pupils from the states not mentioned, relatively few such paying students from these states attended them. This condition was due to transportation difficulties, expense, or ignorance of the existence of such schools. This meant, of course, that if the blind in the rapidly growing middle west, the upper south, and the deep south were to be educated--a contention which a crusader such as Samuel Howe maintained tenaciously--schools would have to be made. For reasons of transportation, expense, and state pride it was clear that the former was the more acceptable of the possibilities. However, since many legislatures either opposed or knew nothing about educating the sightless, it would have been too much to expect the states whose blind were not being educated to take the initiative in establishing institutions. Some force either within

or outside the states would be required to bring the matter actively before the legislators, to explain its possibilities, and to exhibit the results of previous programs. A force with sufficient boldness, ability, tenacity, and courage to perform these tasks was Samuel Gridley Howe and several of his brighter pupils.

The fifteen years following the founding of what shall henceforth be called Perkins Institution were perhaps the most important years as far as education for the blind in America was concerned. It was during that period that the first schools were established west of the Appalachians and south of the Mason-Dixon Line. Of course, these schools were important in themselves, but they were especially important because of the stimulus they gave to other states around them. These schools for the blind were used as "springboards" and models for educators and humanitarians who wished to establish similar institutions in the rapidly growing and prospering new states.

It would be fruitless for us to attempt to give a detailed account of the founding of every school for the sightless after 1833. In addition to being very long, such an account would be extremely repetitive and

boring after a certain point. For that reason we shall discuss in this chapter only the origins of the schools which were established as a result of the actions of Samuel Howe and his pupils during the fifteen years after the opening of Perkins Institution.

The Ohio Institution for the Instruction of the Blind

Ohio was not unlike Boston, Philadelphia, and New York in that the interest in educating its blind sprang from the same source as in the eastern cities, that is the medical profession. In 1834 it was stated that the January 5, 1835 meeting of the Ohio state medical convention would discuss "the erection and location of public asylums for the reception of lunatics and for the instruction of the blind." A result of this meeting was the impowering of the Governor by the Legislature to gather statistics on the state's handicapped, especially the blind. In June Governor Robert Lucas ordered that the census be completed and the results be handed to the Legislature by December. It was reported by fifty-five of fifty-nine counties that there were two hundred and two blind; the four counties not reporting were estimated to have at least forty-eight more. This estimate was later found to be about thirty percent too low. On March 11, 1836, the Legislature appointed Dr. William M. Awl, Mr. N. H. Swayne, and Rev. James Hoge as a board of trustees to gather information on the instruction of the blind, the estimated expense of founding a school for the sightless, and the availa-

bility of instructors. This committee began its task by writing to Dr. Ackerly of New York, Dr. Vaughan of Philadelphia, and Dr. Howe of Boston to obtain the desired information.(1) Although all three answered the questionnaire, only Howe answered it in detail and accepted the invitation to visit Ohio to give his active support to the project. The following pages contain both the questions of the trustees and Howe's answers to them. Both are important because they reflect the nature of the information being sought, in addition to stating Dr. Howe's opinions, policies and methods for educating the young blind.(2)

"Columbus, Ohio
4th May, 1836

"Dear Sir:-

"The undersigned, have been appointed a Board of Trustees, by the Legislature of Ohio, for the purpose of collecting information preparatory to the establishment of a public school for the instruction of the unfortunate Blind in Letters and the Mechanic Arts, most respectfully and affectionately solicit your friendly aid and assistance in gathering up all the knowledge which ingenuity and experience may have acquired, in this most interesting charity.

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1. Barbour, Florence W., Early Years of the Ohio Institute for the Blind.
2. Ohio Institution for the Blind, First Annual Report.

"We trust, dear Sir, that the merit of this subject is sufficient to commend itself to your attention without the necessity for an apology, which is properly due from strangers. Permit us, therefore, to call your attention more particularly to the matter, by soliciting replies to the following questions:

"1. Can a single teacher commence and carry on the school?
(Answer by Dr. Howe, Yes, if he is properly qualified and patient enough; but he would be required to work 12 hours in the 24.)

"2. How many pupils can one teach and instruct?
(Six, if of different ages; more, if he can class them.)

"3. Is it usual for the same teacher to instruct in letters and the mechanical arts? If not, what additional means are used to impart knowledge in the latter branches?
(It is not usual; but I prefer to have the teacher who is with the boys in school, go with them to their work in the shop.)

"4. Is it expedient to maintain a separation between male and female students? and if so, will a female teacher be necessary?
(By all means, yes, yes, yes! It should be a sine qua non, and a female teacher will be necessary.)

"5. Can all the books, apparatus, etc. be obtained in your city? and at what probable expense?
(They are; and two-thirds of the books printed for the blind can be obtained only here. Diagrams, embossed maps, stamped paper, are, I believe, to be procured only here. Whenever you are ready to commence, I will forward you free of charge, copies of the New Testament in raised letters, of the Call, and of the Dairyman's Daughter for each of your pupils....I should say that

for less than six hundred dollars you might put your school in operation: but if anything is clearly demonstrated to my mind, it is that the condition and prosperity of every institution for the blind, will depend, for years, upon the impulse that it receives at the first setting out.)...

"7. Between what ages are pupils considered most susceptible of instruction?
(Between the ages of 6 and 16; we learned to regret extending that time.)

"8. What is the duration of a full course of instruction, and its estimated cost?
(According to the age and ability; as a general rule give a blind boy the same time at school, as you would a seeing boy; he will learn as fast.)

"9. Can the pupils board in private families for one or two years? or will it be indispensably necessary to commence with a boarding-house, expressly for their accommodation?
(I should say decidedly no, to the first part of the query, and decidedly yes, to the second. I might go into detail of reasons, but it will be enough for you to reflect, that to elevate the moral character of the blind, and to give them the necessary confidence in their own powers of supporting themselves, they must not be treated or addressed as 'poor, dear, unfortunate creatures.' And that they will be so addressed by much of the unthinking world. The physical, moral and intellectual character of the blind, cannot be properly developed in common families.)

"10. Can we obtain a qualified teacher? and at what probable expense per annum?
(You can, at $500 per annum, perhaps less; we began with blind teachers under my direction. I should advise you to do the same, but will give you hereafter some details, if you desire it, on the subject.)

"11. What time would be sufficient to qualify a teacher?
(An intelligent and industrious seeing person could become qualified in three months TO TEACH; to educate, is another thing. A blind person can be qualified in three years.)

"12. What mechanical arts do the pupils learn with facility and advantage?
(To make mattresses, door mats, rugs, baskets, whip cord, to sew, knit, braid, etc.)

"13. Which art is most profitable to themselves, and which to the Institution?
(To ours, mattress and mat making; for this reason we pay pupils who have learned, and work for themselves, from $3 to 5 per week, beside board we could give work to 12 at present, at $2.50 and their board, with advantage to the Institution.)

"14. How far have the pupils been able to support themselves by mechanical labor, both before and after they leave the Institution?
(We have been in operation too little time to answer it satisfactorily. I shall be sadly disappointed if three fourths of our pupils cannot support themselves.)

"15. What is the age and general condition of your Institution?
(Four years, and is most flourishing.)

"16. What books or publications will give us the best information in relation to the origin, progress, and general condition of the benevolent science?
(All my books are at your service. I have, I believe, a complete collection of what has been published.

> "17. If possible, please to send us copies of every report made from your institution, and as many other reports, documents, and essays, from other institutions, foreign or domestic as you can conveniently spare." (3)

On December 23, 1836, Dr. Howe and two of his best pupils, Abby and Sophia Carter, appeared before the Legislature in Columbus. There Howe exhibited the fruits of his work of the previous three years, showed through actual demonstration with Ohio blind children the rapid progress which could be made in teaching the sightless, and generally discussed the feasibility of training the blind. That the appearance before the assembly was successful is supported by the fact that the trustees appointed the preceding year soon sent circulars to the judicial districts to gather more accurate information on the number, age, and condition of the blind. The results of the survey showed that in Ohio's fifty-nine counties there were two hundred and eighty-seven sightless people, sixty of whom were under sixteen years of age. Shortly thereafter on April 3, 1837, the Legislature appointed a Board of Trustees to organize a school, to secure a superintendent, to erect buildings whose value was not to exceed 15,000 dollars, to rent suitable rooms for the school, to hire a competent teacher, and to purchase the necessary books and apparatus. At the same time the

3. Ohio Institution for the Blind, *op. cit.*

legislators appropriated 10,000 dollars for the maintainance of the new school.(4)

The newly selected trustees began by employing A. W. Penniman to be the teacher and principal. Although Penniman was at that time teaching at the Philadelphia school for the blind, he had studied in Boston under Dr. Howe. The trustees next ordered from Boston and Philadelphia the books and appliances necessary for opening the school. Finally, they accepted from a benevolent gentleman nine acres of valuable land immediately outside Columbus. In a festive and holiday atmosphere on July 4, 1837, Penniman officially began classes with five young pupils in the First Presbyterian Church of Columbus.(5)

The little school was not long in driving its foundations deeper. By the end of 1837 the enrollment had increased to eleven. Penniman regularly toured parts of the state to demonstrate the wisdom and practicability of training the blind. This naturally increased the interest in the Columbus school. On March 10, 1838, the Legislature set the tuition for paying students at 120 dollars a year and at the same time provided to support twelve indigent blind children for five years.

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4. National Magazine, May, 1857.
5. Ennis, Edna, The Ohio State School.

By 1839 Penniman's nineteen pupils were spending from six to eight hours daily studying geography, arithmetic, grammar, reading, and spelling; twelve were being given piano or voice instruction. However, neither the teacher nor the facilities were available for a full program of mechanical training. The schedule for a winter day was: 6:00 A. M. students rise, 6:30 to 7:30 lessons in geography and grammar on alternate days, 7:30 to 9:00 breakfast and recess, 9:00 to 10:00 on alternate days lessons in spelling and arithmetic, 10:15 to 11:15 singing and choir by all students, 11:30 to 1:00 P.M. reading embossed letters and writing by hand, 1:00 to 2:00 dinner and recess, afternoon devoted to work, 7:00 to 8:00 on alternate days lessons in music and history, 9:00 younger students retire, 10:00 remaining students retire, prayers after all meals. On October 15, 1839, it was found necessary for the institution to move to larger quarters. The move was very wise because within the next twelve months the student enrollment had almost doubled; by late 1840 there were thirty-six pupils. Undoubtedly the rapid increase was due much to the travels and demonstrations by Penniman and his accomplished pupils.(6)

The year 1843 saw the trustees authorize an action which was in reality one of the great steps forward in the field of educating the blind; they authorized the school to admit as many students as it

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6. Ohio Institution for the Blind, op. cit.

thought proper, and to keep those students two years more who were too young to leave after the prescribed five years. In 1851 the second forward step was taken when the distinction between indigent and paying pupils was formally abolished. According to the provision, Ohio students in order to be eligible to enter the school were to be between seven and twenty-one years of age, to have good moral character, and to have good physical health. Parents were expected to pay only expenses of transportation, clothing, and incidentals. Students from outside Ohio were to pay 100 dollars tuition six months before entering the institution.(7)

We have dealt with the founding and early development of the Ohio school in relative detail for two important reasons; it was the first school for the blind established in the west as a result of both local and eastern interest and it was the first institution to be supported wholly by public appropriations. During the years immediately following its foundation it accepted students from neighboring states until their own schools were incorporated. It also was to take a comparatively active part in bringing about the interest which culminated in the establishment of a similar school to the south in 1842.

Virginia Asylum for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and for the Blind

One observer has remarked that members of especially the medical profession were among the first to take interest in educating the blind and that members of the clergy were among the first interested in training children possessing other handicaps. In Virginia it was the actions of a minister which aroused most of the early interest in educating both the deaf and the blind. Rev. W. S. Plummer of Richmond invited Dr. Howe to speak to the Virginia Legislature in 1837. Howe, who had not yet lost the crusading zeal which had inspired him to go to Greece thirteen years before, accepted the invitation and journeyed with his best pupils, the Carter sisters, to Richmond shortly thereafter. There teacher and pupil alike through words and demonstrations showed the Virginia legislators the success which could be attained in educating the blind. We know from the following actions that the Legislature accepted, at least in part, the thesis given by Howe and his students; on March 31, 1838, an act was passed authorizing the establishment of the Virginia Asylum for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and for the Blind. According to this provision 20,000 dollars was appropriated for the purchase of a suitable site and building for the new institution. Later an additional 10,000 dollars was granted for maintainance thereof.

1. *National Magazine*, May, 1857.

Unfortunately, no positive steps were taken toward the actual establishment of the school until 1840, when it was officially organized. On January 1, 1841, classes formally were begun on the sixteen acre plot in Staunton. Dr. J. C. M. Merillet was appointed principal of the section for the blind. However, the new institution had to struggle for its continuance during the succeeding five years. It was then that an artful demagogue and his following in the Virginia Legislature attempted to close the school by insisting that the funds appropriated for its maintainance would be spent more wisely and fruitfully upon the public schools of the state. In spite of this opposition, however, in May of 1846 25,000 dollars was granted for the completion of the main school building in Staunton. By then the enrollment had risen to twenty-eight blind pupils and thirty-five deaf students.

After slow and rather impeded beginnings the belief in the ultimate soundness of educating the blind gathered momentum. 1847 saw the Legislature increase the annuity for maintainance from 10,000 dollars to 15,000 yearly; an additional 2,000 was set aside for the purchase of twenty-three acres of needed meadow land. In 1853 the annuity was increased another 5,000 to 20,000 dollars and another 20,000 was granted for the erection of a chapel on the institution's campus. The same year both departments of the school were placed under the direction of Dr. Merillet, who had been only principal of the department

for the blind. By then the enrollment had climbed to a total of two hundred and forty-seven, ninety-three of whom were blind.*

Although the course of study was not essentially different from that of most other institutions, the students at the Virginia school were kept quite busy. They spent daily from three to five hours in the manual training shop or doing household duties, five hours in class, and two in study hall. The active manual training program consisted primarily of mat making, shoe making, chair caning, sewing, woodwork, baking, and cloth making.[2]

Mention should be made here of the fact that Virginia was the first to attempt to educate its sightless and its deaf in the same institution. As will be seen subsequently, many states were to follow this unfortunate precedent when establishing their institutions for special education. It should also be mentioned that, as far as we know, the Virginia school was the first to be opposed seriously by a

2. Varney, Adah May, A Brief Sketch of the History of the Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind.

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*Concerning this we have discovered an apparently serious contradiction. Adah May Varney says in "A Brief Sketch of the History of the Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind" that the 1853 enrollment was two hundred and forty-seven. However, National Magazine, May, 1857, states that the enrollment in 1855 was forty blind pupils. It is highly improbable that the number of sightless pupils decreased more than fifty-six percent in only two years.

major political or social faction. Although political opposition is by no means dependent upon precedence, it was to be a major factor in delaying the founding of the school for the blind in Kentucky. Finally, the Virginia institution after its founding did not maintain as close relations with the existing eastern schools as did the Ohio or later institutions. This was the case in spite of the fact that Dr. Howe and his pupils from Boston had originally stirred the Legislature to incorporate the school. Of course, since there were at that time no other presses for embossing books, Virginia almost certainly obtained some of its books, educational aids, and appliances from Howe's press in south Boston.

Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Blind

Thus far we have discussed the states in which interest in educating the blind caused Dr. Howe to appear before their legislatures with his pupils. Let us now turn to cases in which Dr. Howe took the initiative in stimulating interest in the sightless.

In 1840 Otis Patten, who had been trained by Dr. Howe, appeared before the Legislature of Kentucky in an attempt to persuade that body to establish an institution similar to that in Columbus. When Patten met strong opposition he invited his former instructor to come to Frankfort to speak for the cause. We know that Dr. Howe made the journey west, however we do not know whether he took with him pupils from Perkins Institution. Nevertheless, he also met with opposition too strong to defeat; the request for the founding of a school for the blind was refused. In spite of this, however, Howe did not concede defeat; he continued to believe that the legislators would eventually be brought to see the practicability of incorporating a school. In a letter to Horace Mann he expressed his opinion of the success he had attained and his hopes for the future growth of an institution for the blind in Louisville.[1]

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[1] Richards, Laura E., ed., Letters and Journals of Samuel Gridley Howe, p. 104.

The words of Dr. Howe written in reply to the appeal of Otis Patten after the latter's unsuccessful appearance before the Kentucky Legislature well summarize Howe's willingness to aid the cause of the blind. Clearly then they also reflect the value which he placed upon educating America's sightless.[2]

> "I have it very much to heart to see institutions for the instruction of the blind built up in every part of the country. And I would willingly make any personal sacrifice or effort to effect it. If it is thought I can be of any use, I will come to Louisville and take the matter in hand. I will devote myself entirely to it, and ask no compensation for my time or expenses."

It was primarily this willingness to work for a cause or a movement that stimulated Howe in December of 1841 to leave Boston with the Carter sisters to begin the most successful trip of his career at Perkins. As we have seen, he was dreaming of establishing in Kentucky a school which would receive blind pupils from other southern states. However, he was also hoping that similar institutions would be created in the southern states nearer the coast. For the latter reason he journeyed first to South Carolina, North Carolina, and Georgia. Due to the efforts of Charles Sumner the trip was given adequate advance publicity in South Carolina. Sumner asked a close friend, Professor

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2. Ross, Ishbel, The Lifted Veil.

Francis Lieber, to publicize the nature and cause of Howe's journey as much as possible in newspapers and other media of communication.[3]

In South Carolina Howe scored the first of his successes of the long trip; he persuaded the Legislature to provide for the education of the state's sightless at Perkins. From Augusta, Georgia, he wrote to Mann of the provisions by South Carolina and Georgia for the eventual establishment of their own institutions. In the same letter he also discussed his intentions of going next to Kentucky.

> "MY DEAR MANN:--I have not heretofore directed my epistles to you because I could not know your whereabouts in the good old State. But I have now got so far off that the objects look very small, and it seems to me that a direction to Massachusetts will be sufficient.
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> "I have secured my great object (provision for the instruction of the blind) in South Carolina; and made such arrangements in this State as will undoubtedly secure it at the next session of the Legislature.
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> "I am disappointed, however, in my plan of crossing the country through Tennessee to Kentucky. The road, I find, is very tedious and dangerous, and the liability to being confined by snow storms in a country tavern for some weeks, is not little: all this, however, would not have turned me from my purpose, because I wanted to go that way, but I have two blind girls with me, and one of them is a little indisposed and I dare not risk her health. I shall go therefore to Baltimore, and if she is better and the navigation of the Ohio is not closed I shall perhaps go that way."[4]

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3. Schwartz, Harold, Samuel Gridley Howe--Social Reformer--1801-1876, p. 102.
4. Richards, Laura E., ed., op. cit., p. 112.

Because of traveling difficulties and the illness of Abby and Sophia Carter, Howe was forced to return to Boston in January of 1842. However, as soon as possible he resumed his trip and made preparations to go to Kentucky by sailing down the Ohio River. Along the way he added to his party accomplished students from the school for the blind in Philadelphia. After arriving in Frankfort he wrote to Sumner of--among other things--his voyage down the Ohio, the prospects of establishing a school, and the performance of his pupils before the Legislature:

> "...I have said nothing about my plans and operations here. They promise well. To-morrow evening I shall have an exhibition before the Legislature, and doubt not of a favourable result. It will be a peculiar satisfaction to me to be instrumental in building up a school for the blind here, for I am sure it will be highly useful, not only to them directly but to all around individually; anything which shall awaken and keep awake the kindly feelings and sympathies of our nature will be peculiarly useful here, as a light is most useful where the darkness is deepest..."[5]

In Frankfort Dr. Howe achieved his greatest success. From the numerous letters concerning the establishment of the Kentucky school we may gather that he considered it his greatest accomplishment of the trip and one of the great accomplishments of his life. He wrote of the exhibit before the Legislature and the general enthusiasm it aroused:

5. Richards, Laura E., ed., op. cit., p. 117.

> "We had an exhibition yesterday in the hall of the House of Representatives, which excited great interest and really inspired the Kentucks with enthusiasm. To-day a bill passed by acclamation, appropriating $10,000 for the establishment of a school at Louisville, to be called the Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Blind. There is not a doubt about its success in the Senate, for all Frankfort is so interested in the blind that I am afraid some mammas will put their children's eyes out. Many members who were violently opposed to the bill last year declared they would vote double the sum asked, if it were needed.[6]

Although Dr. Howe would have liked for us to believe that the people of Kentucky were so enthusiastic about the opening of a school for the sightless that he feared "some mammas would put their children's eyes out," we must state that the school was first incorporated as a partially private institution. Whether it would receive future support from the Legislature was dependent upon its general success.[7] Nevertheless, notice of the opening of the institution was circulated throughout the state in the spring and on May 9, 1842, the Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Blind began classes in Louisville with five students. Bryce M. Patten was appointed its first principal and Otis Patten was appointed his assistant and principal teacher.[8]

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[6] Richards, Laura E., ed., op. cit., p. 118.

[7] Best, Harry, The Blind: Their Condition and the Work Being Done for Them in the United States, p. 268.

[8] Ross, Ishbel, op. cit.

The new school was not long in securing its position. By the end of the year the enrollment had increased to ten, nine of whose tuition of 200 dollars yearly was being paid by the state. The ages of the pupils then varied from seven to twenty-two years, although most were between thirteen and eighteen. Very soon the pupils began making "astonishing progress" in reading and spelling with embossed letters, arithmetic taught mentally or with the aid of frames and raised types, geography taught orally and with raised maps, music, and writing. According to the First Annual Report, 1843, of the school all the students who had been there two months by then were able to read the embossed characters and many were able to write with a pencil by using a piece of grooved pasteboard as a backing. Although the school did not have sufficient space for a large mechanical arts department, beginnings were made in reaching such handicrafts as mat making, watch guard production, knitting, and sewing. From a copy of the 1844 schedule we may gather an idea as to the curriculum and the activities of the institution.

Schedule of Kentucky school 1844: arise 5:15 and prepare for school, 5:45 assemble and listen to reading of history, biography, and science, 7:00 to 8:00 recreation and breakfast, 8 to 9 spelling and arithmetic, also reading, 9 to 10 writing and arithmetic, 10 to 11 vocal music, 11 to 12 English grammar and reading, 12 to 12:45 arithmetic and geography, 12:45 to 2 lunch and recreation, 2 to 2:30 vocal music, 2:30 to 5:30 manual labor and instrumental music, 5:30 to 7

recreation and supper, 7 to 8 reading the embossed books, 8 the younger pupils retire, 8 to 9 the older ones prepare lessons, 9:30 older students retire. During the day some receive lessons and practice upon the piano. I should be noted that the time is so varied by frequent recesses, by change of subject, by manual labor, by musical that our pupils very rarely experience fatigue.[9]

That the seeds from which the Kentucky institution sprang did not fall in thin soil is proven by the fact that the school was soon placed under the direct support of the Legislature. It should be noted, however, that students were admitted from other states if private or state sources paid their tuition. Finally, by 1855 the enrollment had risen to such an extent that it was necessary to erect a magnificent new building to house them, a building which is still used for many school functions today. From a letter written by the Kentucky Legislature in 1901 we may gather its estimation of the value of the school and its feelings toward Dr. Howe for his part in establishing the institution almost sixty years before.

> "In behalf of the blind of Kentucky, the Board of Visitors of the Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Blind beg to assure you that the labours of Dr. Samuel G. Howe, in assisting in founding the Kentucky Institution for the Blind, are held in grateful remembrance to this day.
>
> "In the winter of 1841 he made the long and tiresome journey to Kentucky, and addressed the Legislature of our State upon the expediency of founding a school

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[9] Second Annual Report of the Kentucky Institution for the Education of the Blind, 1844.

> for the blind, with such success that in February, 1842, the Kentucky Institution for the Blind was established.
>
> "Even should the memory of his name, in the course of ages, pass from the minds of men, the beneficient influence of his deeds will abide 'to the last syllable of recorded time.'"[10]

After leaving Kentucky in 1842 Dr. Howe and his party continued down the Ohio and the Mississippi rivers to New Orleans. In a letter to Horace Mann he once more discussed his Kentucky success. In it he also expressed his hopes that the states of the deep south would make provisions for educating their sightless in some way.[11] From the activities of this journey were to spring in later years schools for the blind in Louisiana and Mississippi.

In this section we have seen the founding of the Kentucky school principally through the eyes of Dr. Samuel G. Howe. We have also seen that Howe had to use all his ability as a showman and a persuasive speaker to loosen the purse strings of a previously indifferent legislature. Finally, we have been made aware of the great importance connected with establishing a single school to serve as a center for a geographic region. This chapter has discussed in some detail the important decade immediately after the founding of Perkins Institution, ten years during which Samuel Howe and his pupils from Boston traveled thousands of miles to "spread the gospel." Although Howe was to appear before state legislatures espousing

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10. Richards, Laura E., ed., op. cit., p. 119.
11. Ibid., p. 120.

the cause of the blind during the next ten years, the period which has been discussed was the formative decade. During those years schools were established which were to serve as experimental or training bases, bases for further missionary work, and sources for leaders of the countless institutions for the blind which were incorporated during the period immediately before and after the Civil War.

Chapter IV

Later Developments

Even if a reader of this thesis did not know definitely so, he probably could guess with a reasonable degree of accuracy that the schools thus far discussed were not the only ones established. To the contrary, they were the pioneers and the guiding lights in the field of education of the blind. As one may guess, the problems they encountered in being incorporated, in securing support for their continuation, and in improving their methods of teaching were encountered by many of the schools which followed them. Indeed, in many cases the circumstances leading to incorporation, actual organization, and beginning of classes were identical. For that reason it would be unwise, perhaps even impossible, to attempt to describe the circumstances leading to the opening of the remaining institutions in America. However, in order to understand the relations between the existing schools and the newly established institutions before 1870 one should carefully examine the information given in the following chart.

ICAL TABLE OF THE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND IN THE UNITED STATES[1]

COMPILED BY S. G. HOWE

Name	Location		Year of Foundation	Superintendent
	City or Town	State		
stitution for the Blind,	Little Rock	Arkansas	1859	Otis Patten
stitution for Deaf, Dumb, d Blind	Oakland	California	1866	Warring Wilkinson
ademy for the Blind,	Macon	Georgia	1853	W. D. Williams
stitution for the Blind,	Jacksonville	Illinois	1849	Joshua Rhoads
stitution for the Blind,	Indianapolis	Indiana	1847	W. H. Churchman
stitution for the Blind,	Vinton	Iowa	1853	S. A. Knapp
nsas Institution for the lind,	Wyandotte	Kansas	1867	W. W. Updegraff
stitution for the Blind,	Louisville	Kentucky	1842	B. B. Huntoon
uisiana Institution for struction of the Blind,	Baton Rouge	Louisiana	1852	- -
stitution for the Blind,	Baltimore	Maryland	1853	F. D. Morrison
rkins Institution and ssachusetts Asylum for Blind,	Boston	Massachusetts	1829	S. G. Howe
stitution for Deaf, Dumb Blind,	Flint	Michigan	1854	Egbert L. Bangs
titution for the Blind,	St. Louis	Missouri	1851	H. R. Foster
esota Institution for af, Dumb and Blind,	Fairbault	Minnesota	1863	J. L. Noyes
titution for the Blind,	Jackson	Mississippi	1853	Sarah B. Merrill
York State Institution Blind,	Batavia	New York	1867	A. D. Lord
York Institution for Blind,	New York City	New York	1831	William B. Wait
itution for the Blind,	Raleigh	North Carolina	1846	S. F. Tomlinson
titution for the Blind,	Columbus	Ohio	1837	G. L. Smead
titution for the Blind,	Philadelphia	Pennsylvania	1833	William Chapin
titution for the Blind,	Nashville	Tennessee	1844	J. M. Sturtevant
itution for the Blind,	Austin	Texas	1856	R. M. Mills
titution for Deaf, and Blind,	Staunton	Virginia	1839	Charles D. McCoy
stitution for Deaf, and Blind,	Romney	West Virginia	1870	H. H. Hollister
stitution for the Blind,	Janesville	Wisconsin	1850	Thomas H. Little

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rtieth Annual Report of the Trustees of the Perkins Institution, October, 1871, p. 34.

TICAL TABLE OF THE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND IN THE UNITED STATES

COMPILED BY S. G. HOWE

es it belong to State or Corporation	Estimated Value of its Property	Average Annual Receipts for Five Years	Average Receipts from regular sources for Five Years	Average Annual Expenditures for Five Years
State	$20,000 00	$17,754 83	$17,754 83	$12,625 73
State	250,000 00	57,000 00	26,000 00	57,000 00
- -	-	13,861 92	9,900 00	12,490 01
State	80,000 00	25,000 00	25,000 00	25,000 00
State	550,000 00	37,262 00	37,262 00	37,086 00
State	-	12,750 92	11,961 51	11,207 73
State	-	-	-	-
State	94,000 00	16,945 55	12,563 72	16,752 75
State	3,000 00	7,000 00	7,000 00	7,000 00
Corporation	200,000 00	18,000 00	15,000 00	36,000 00
Corporation	360,652 23	78,497 24	36,766 49	71,342 18
State	150,000 00	45,179 39	44,978 68	46,598 09
Corporation	-	17,233 82	12,000 00	18,771 05
- -	-	9,219 83	-	7,830 55
State	150,000 00	37,500 00	24,000 00	37,500 00
State	260,000 00	32,500 00*	32,500 00*	26,733 00*
Corporation	356,504 04	97,127 33	44,396 76	95,643 02
State	50,000 00	-	-	-
State	352,000 00	60,389 11	60,389 11	60,389 11
Corporation	145,000 00	72,972 53	49,621 98	71,885 87
Corporation	8,000 00	11,000 00	11,000 00	11,300 00
State	25,000 00	9,500 00	9,500 00	9,500 00
- -	150,000 00	42,063 33ᵞ	35,000 00	42,658 32ᵞ
State	40,000 00	5,200 00	5,200 00	5,200 00
State	160,000 00	35,115 64	-	33,372 34

two years

four years

STICAL TABLE OF THE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND IN THE UNITED STATES

COMPILED BY S. G. HOWE

Average Annual ordinary Expenditures	Annual Receipts from State	Annual Receipts from other States and Individuals	Total Number Admitted since opening	Present Number
12,625 73	$17,754 83	$18,000 00	87	40
25,000 00	30,000 00	1,000 00	66	33
-	9,900 00	-	-	33
23,000 00	25,000 00	Nothing	394	70
30,000 00	37,262 00	Nothing	431	106
-	14,200 00	-	-	105
-	5,000 00	-	-	23
15,678 32	8,850 00	-	277	29
-	-	Nothing	23	23
14,850 00	15,000 00	Nothing	124	50
36,038 63	24,300 00	12,466 29	776	163
30,752 00	-	-	354	181
-	12,000 00	-	-	85
-	-	-	83	66
17,500 00	24,000 00	Nothing	244	108
-	32,500 00	Nothing	166	121
49,790 54	34,460 40	3,753 49	1,001	159
-	--	-	113	62
31,033 07	31,033 07	Nothing	732	103
45,286 40	33,000 00	7,800 00	751	186
10,750 00	8,200 00	Nothing	123	41
-	10,000 00	Nothing	-	15
30,000 00	35,000 00	-	545	137
2,500 00	5,200 00	Nothing	13	11
17,260 00	-	-	173	69

STICAL TABLE OF THE INSTITUTIONS FOR THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND IN THE UNITED STATES

COMPILED BY S. G. HOWE

Number of Instructors and other Employees	Number of Blind Employees	Total Amount paid Blind Employees and Workmen
11	3	$2,456 00
19	1	1,350 00
-	-	-
17	None	-
25	6	3,910 00
8	2	-
15	-	-
18	7	1,500 00
9	1	1,000 00
14	2	100 00
40	13	3,655 11
-	-	-
7	-	-
-	-	-
28	9	1,580 00
27	2	400 00
51	9	2,500 00
-	3	1,100 00
30	4	1,116 00
60	24	2,200 00
8 1/2	4	1,920 00
1	1	150 00
-	2	420 00
3	1	1,150 00
7	1	455 00

It should be noted that the preceding table, which was compiled by Dr. Howe of Boston, omitted the schools established in Alabama, and South Carolina. This omission probably was caused in part by the uncertain and insecure position of those schools so soon after the Civil War. Also, the facts quoted about the other schools probably were not available concerning the institutions under discussion. We do know, however, that the Alabama school was established in Talladega in 1858. By 1915 its capacity was one hundred pupils and the amount appropriated by the state for the education of each was 230 dollars yearly. In 1855 South Carolina added a department for the education of the blind to the South Carolina School for the Deaf. Previously students from the state had been sent to Perkins Institution. By 1915 the capacity of the department was one hundred and an appropriation of 35,000 dollars was being granted yearly for the instruction of the deaf and the blind.[2]

Several facts which were not quoted by Dr. Howe are worth examination. For example, the institutions in Tennessee, Illinois, Iowa, Maryland, and Missouri were supported by private sources the first year of their existence; legislatures demanded proof that educating the sightless would be economically and politically feasible. Secondly, exhibits by blind students from neighboring states were required to persuade the legislatures of Tennessee, Indiana, and Illinois to establish institutions

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2. Campbell, Charles F. and Mary B., Institutions for the Blind in America.

at public expense within their borders. Finally, several institutions were established not wholly for educating the blind. Although the school in Georgia was organized officially in 1851, some blind students had been educated at the school for the deaf since 1845. In 1851, 1855, and 1856 departments for the blind were added to the existing schools for the deaf in North Carolina, South Carolina, and Texas.[3]

In order to give the reader some idea of the further progress of the move for educating the sightless we have condensed much of the information about the institutions established after 1870 into the following brief chart. It should be remembered that only schools are being considered; many other organizations for the rehabilitation, employment, and instruction of the blind have been organized.[4]

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3. Best, Harry, The Blind: Their Condition and the Work Being Done for Them in the United States, p. 269.
4. Campbell, Charles F. and Mary B., op. cit.

INSTITUTIONS ESTABLISHED AFTER 1870

(Figures of 1915)

State	Date of Establishment	City Location	Capacity	Annual Appropriation
Colorado	1883	Colo. Springs	50[*]	$89,000
Florida	1885	St. Augustine	40[*]	35,000
Idaho	1906	Gooding	25	30,000
Maine	1906	Portland	60	15,000
Montana	1894	Bolder	25	83,000[ϒ]
Nebraska	1875	Nebraska City	100	25,000
New Mexico	1906	Alamogordo	60	20,000
North Dakota	1895	Bathgate	36	12,000
Oklahoma	1908	Muskogee	120	40,000
Oregon	1874	Salem	50	12,000
Western Pennsylvania	1888	Pittsburgh	130	360[Δ]
South Dakota	1900	Gary	50	15,000
Utah	1896	Ogden	50	50,000[*]
Washington	1906	Vancouver	80	61,000

[*] Deaf and blind

[ϒ] Deaf, blind, and feeble minded

[Δ] Per student plus endowment

The Change from a Line Type to a Point System

One factor which obviously has improved the position of the blind in our society has been the growth of institutions for their education. However, changes in the methods and systems used by these schools have also been of great importance in putting the educated blind on an equal footing with their sighted friends and competitors. We shall discuss very briefly the change from line systems to point systems for reading and writing; it was this change which helped revolutionize education of the blind.

As we have seen, Dr. Samuel G. Howe early saw many of the faults of the reading systems devised for the blind before he was appointed to establish an institution for the sightless in Boston. Fortunately, he was willing to experiment and not accept the methods in use. The result of this experimentation was the Boston Line Letter, which has been discussed. Since textbooks were considered essential for education, Dr. Howe began printing books and maps in this system. Between 1835 and 1907 from the press in Boston came two hundred thousand volumes. Indeed, for many years it was the only source of embossed material in the United States.

Unfortunately, the Boston Line Letter had the same general defect as did most other systems which were formed by embossing lines or Roman

characters on thick paper; it could not be read easily by the blind. Only those with very sensitive touch were able to read it well. According to W. B. Wait, a later superintendent of the New York Institution for the Blind, only one-third of six hundred and sixty-four pupils from seven schools using Boston type could read well; one-third could read slowly by spelling out words and one-third could not read at all. On the other hand, at the Missouri school, which was the first in America to use Braille--an arbitrary point system--two-thirds of the pupils could read well and one-third could read slowly by spelling out letters.[1] Nevertheless, educators such as Dr. Howe of Boston and William Chapin of Philadelphia insisted that the embossed Roman letter or some slight modification thereof was the best system. Howe's contention was strengthened in 1852 when a jury at the world industrial exhibition in London selected the Boston Line as the most practicable type. For this reason Howe in 1853 again attempted to persuade Congress to establish a federally supported press for the blind. Of course, although he urged the advocates of the various types in use to put aside their differences and support the request, he insisted that the proposed press should use the Boston Line.

As we have seen, Braille was introduced by Louis Braille in 1829. However, it was not generally accepted by Europe until almost half a century later. Not until 1878, 1882, and 1885 was it in wide use in

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[1] Armitage, T. R., The Education and Employment of the Blind, p. 40.

France, Germany, and the United Kingdom. In America very little was known of it; only the Missouri school used it regularly. For this and rather technical reasons it was not being considered as a substitute for embossed letters by those who were convinced by 1865 that a more legible type should be used. Neither was Moon Type, which was being used by several institutions, being considered as a substitute. To the contrary, an arbitrary point system introduced by William B. Wait in 1868 was soon to become the system most widely used for the following half century in American schools for the sightless.

The system, which we shall henceforth call New York Point, formed its characters from six dots, as did Braille. However, New York Point characters consisted of two horizontal lines of three dots each. Secondly, the former system utilized the principle of recurrence. That is, those letters which appear in the language most often were represented by symbols requiring the fewest dots and the smallest amount of space. Besides being much easier to learn and read than the line type, New York Point could be written very easily and quickly. Principally for these greatly simplified reasons its advocates urged its acceptance upon American educators.

At the second meeting of the American Association of Instructors for the Blind, which met in Indianapolis in 1871, Wait's system was accepted by the leading school principals. The following year the New

York Point system for music notation was adopted by the A. A. I. B. These steps were taken in spite of strong opposition from Dr. Howe, although by that time many activities other than education of the blind were demanding much of his time and energy. Shortly thereafter in ~~1789~~ 1879 the American Printing House for the Blind, Inc., which had been established originally in 1858 by the state of Kentucky, was given a perpetual grant of 10,000 dollars yearly for the embossing of books. Although by 1892 there were still several blind people who could read only the embossed Roman characters it was in that year that the newly chartered printing house embossed its last book in Boston Line Letter.[2]

The acceptance of New York Point was important in that it was superior to the line systems being used in the 19th century. However, for our purposes its chief importance lay in the fact that it was a definite break from the belief that writing systems for the blind must not be arbitrary. Its adoption signified that America's educators were willing to try a system which obviously seemed superior. With this as a precedent it was not difficult early in the present century to show that even New York Point had serious defects. Although its advocates supported it strongly in heated controversies, Braille was eventually seen to be superior. After many committees made numerous impartial investigations and gave countless reports concerning a uniform type Standard English Braille was adopted by the American Association of Instructors for the Blind toward the end of the first quarter of this century.

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2. Huntoon, Benjamin, Printing for the Blind as Developed by the the American Printing House for the Blind, Inc.

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Conclusions

Although many people were interested for some reason in the blind before the late 18th century, it was Abbe Valentine Hauy who made the first systematic effort to educate or train the sightless. His school in Paris was important because it improved the status of its pupils, of course. However, its chief importance lay in the fact that it served as a model, though not a perfect one, to show that the blind were capable of being taught to ~~life~~ LIVE useful lives. From this institution came many men and ideas which were directly or indirectly active in the establishment and early growth of similar American schools. Its successes and failures served as invaluable experience for later educators. Finally, its close relation to the government impressed upon especially American instructors of the blind the early need to separate institutions from the realm of politics and government. As has been shown, this view was modified considerably with the establishment of the Ohio institution for the blind.

In general, the interest in America's sightless was native to North America. That is, efforts were not made by the early European educators to spread the concern for the blind to these shores. Of course, in many cases the European institutions served as practical inspiration for such men as Dr. J. D. Fisher of Boston and Dr. J. F. Fisher of

Philadelphia. Even Julius R. Friedlander, who came to America with the purpose in mind of establishing a school for the blind, had been asked to do so previously by J. F. Fisher, principally because of the interest of Robert Vaux. The successful education of the deaf and the acceptance of the European experiments resulted in the foundation of the early American institutions.

There is no reason to believe that Samuel G. Howe was more qualified to become first principal of the New England institution than were many other men of the time. It was merely believed that he had the nerve and energy to promote such an undertaking well. When he opened his school in 1832 he was not compelled to start from nothing. Before him were the experiences of the older European schools and asylums. Fortunately, Howe was sufficiently objective and critical in his observation of them to see many of their more outstanding defects. It was indeed fortunate that he had the imagination or ingenuity to correct them when establishing Perkins Institution. However, he accepted to a great extent the teaching techniques already being used. This is demonstrated by the fact that he brought two European teachers to this country with him when he returned.

The writings and activities of Dr. Howe more than any other individual prepared America to accept the thesis that educating the blind was an eminently practicable, sensible, and humane undertaking. By writing dozens of articles and by traveling thousands of miles to

speak before legislatures and other influential groups he convinced much of the nation that the sightless should be trained as a matter merely of public policy and private right. At the same time he distinguished carefully between America's plans for schools and Europe's asylums for the blind. Undoubtedly this distinction aided the establishment of many institutions and made it ~~eadier~~ EASIER for them to secure support afterward. Above all, however, it prevented American schools from following the precedent set by especially the British institutions; it permitted them to develop along liberal academic lines, a development which has given them the necessary flexibility to adapt their curriculums to our changing society.

Perhaps the greatest achievement of Dr. S. G. Howe in the field of education for the blind was the provision by fifteen states for the instruction of their blind in some way. These provisions in themselves were important because they were responsible for the education of hundreds of blind students in existing or newly established institutions. However, the chief significance lay in the part they played in the eventual development of facilities for training the blind throughout the United States. From especially the schools founded in the mid-west went students, teachers, and committees who worked for the incorporation of similar schools in other states. To them came delegations from private and official organizations to study the methods of educating the blind, the feasibility of training them, and the problems to be encountered in founding such institutions. As a quick glance at the

chart compiled by Dr. Howe will show, these institutions furnished many of the men who were to be the leaders of other schools in other states. Indeed, as we have shown, Dr. Howe and his pupils played a major roll in bringing about the foundation of these valuable schools. We cannot say that they would not have been organized if Howe had not actively taken part. Undoubtedly such men as Chapin and Wait would have crusaded eventually for the cause of the blind. However, this would have delayed the opening of these schools or the making of provisions for the education of the blind by other states. It is impossible to surmise what "would" have happened had Howe only taken part in the Greek revolution, worked actively as an abolitionist, sided with Horace Mann in many of the great educational controversies entered by that reformer, or worked actively for the annexation of Santo Domingo in the early 1870's. To the contrary, we can state only the results of his efforts concerning the blind.

Although we do not wish to make Dr. Howe appear as a broad-minded liberal concerning matters of education and administration, we must realize that he was progressive in many respects. His belief that a well trained mind was the best substitute for the loss of sight has been incorporated into the programs of study of most of the present institutions for the blind. Of course, this does not mean that vocational training and placement are overlooked. His general contention that the blind should be educated as nearly as possible by the

same methods used with the sighted has been accepted by many states and cities. One result of this has been the provision for the education of sightless pupils in public schools, many of which work closely with residential institutions for the sightless. Dr. Howe's dislike for the separate institution plan has resulted in many places in the rebuilding of schools for the blind along the cottage plan. This plan has created as nearly as possible many of the conditions under which a pupil would live and study if he were in his home. Naturally, this has decreased many of the differences between the societies within institutions and in the sighted world. By exposing blind students to many of the same problems and situations faced by sighted pupils it has helped the blind to discredit many of the beliefs commonly held about them by the sighted through pity, innocent ignorance, or malice.

Perhaps one of Dr. Howe's most valuable contributions to the field of education of the blind was his general attitude toward the sightless and the treatment they should receive. As we have seen, he favored permitting a sightless child to learn as much as possible through actual experience. This clearly meant that he opposed pampering and protecting the child from all obstacles or problems. The application of his views by later educators greatly increased the self-confidence and the actual accomplishments of blind students and adults. At the same time this has served as a guide or precedent for the sighted in their relations with the sightless.

Just as surely as Howe forwarded the education of the blind by bringing about provisions for their instruction and by applying progressive teaching and administrative policies, he blocked progress by tenaciously insisting that his Boston Line Letter was better than all other systems. Unfortunately, after condemning European educators for being unwilling to accept improvements he became equally stubborn. Although American superintendents attempted to persuade Howe to adopt one of the point systems, he firmly refused, and continued to produce volumes of embossed letters. However, he did urge Congress to provide financial aid for a press for the embossing of books and other material for the blind. Although his requests were denied during his lifetime, it was his 1845 proposal which was introduced in 1879 to bring about the establishment of the American Printing House for the Blind, Inc. By acting as advisors of the newly established printing house the superintendents voiced their opposition to the Boston Line and supported the adoption of New York Point, later Braille. We cannot say, however, that the press was incorporated purely as a result of opposition to Howe because for the first thirteen years of its existence it embossed line letters. On the other hand, by being able to act as advisors the superintendents gained a powerful weapon for their cause. It is highly probable that the superintendents saw the possible strength of this instrument before even 1879.

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These were valuable principally as sources of information on the early growth of the Indiana institution.

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These were valuable principally as sources of information on the early growth of the Kentucky institution.

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"Education of the Blind," *The New England Magazine*, vol. IV, January-June, 1833.
This was of little value because it dealt principally with the subject in an emotional manner.

"Institutions for the Instruction of the Blind," *The National Magazine*, vol. X, January-June, 1857.
In spite of many generalizations about the blind and their capabilities this article dealt reasonably objectively with the subject.

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This was useful only as a source of information about rather outmoded teaching methods, although it did mention current improvements. Generally, it was a rather objective article.

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This was excellent for showing the various alphabets used by the blind. Its embossed diagrams were of great use.

"Massachusetts Asylum for the Blind," (A Review of the Eighth Annual Report of the Trustees of the Perkins Institution and the Massachusetts Asylum for the Blind to the Corporation), *The North American Review*, Vol. I, 1840.
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This was very valuable as a short analytical account of the origins of education for the blind in America. However, much of it dealt with the technicalities of educating the sightless.

Anagnos, Michael, *Education of the Blind, Historical Sketch of Its Origin, Rise, and Progress.* Boston: Rand, Avery and Co., 1882.
This was an excellent pamphlet written in a very clear, objective, analytic, and factually correct manner.

Anderson, Thomas, *Observations on the Employment, Education and Habits of the Blind.* London: Sampson Low, Marston and Co., Ltd., 1895.
This book was useless because it merely opposed some of the current philosophies concerning training the blind. It neither criticized constructively nor stated mere facts.

Armitage, T. R., *The Education and Employment of the Blind; What It Has Been, Is, and Ought to Be.* London: Harrison and Sons, 1886.
This was useful as a reasonably unbiased account of educational facilities for the blind at the time. However, much of it was colored by the personal views of the author concerning the reading system which should be used in America.

Barbour, Florence W., *Early Years of the Ohio Institute for the Blind,* 1930-1931. (Pamphlet in Perkins Institution Library)
This was very valuable as a source of facts concerning the founding of the Ohio school. It was factually correct, reasonably complete, and clearly written.

Best, Harry, *The Blind: Their Condition and the Work Being Done for Them in the United States.* New York: Macmillan, 1919.
This work was one of the most valuable used as a source of general objective information about the early years of education of the blind, the condition of the blind, and measures which should be taken for the blind.

Campbell, Charles F. and Mary B., *Institutions for the Blind in America.* (Reprinted from the *American Encyclopedia of Ophthamology,* vol. IX, 1916.)
This was extremely useful as a source of statistical information about the institutions for the blind established before 1916.

Cutsforth, Thomas D., The Blind in School and Society. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1933.
This was of very little use because it dealt mainly with the institutions for the blind of today, their problems, etc.

Dickens, Charles, American Notes for General Circulation. Boston: Estes and Lauriat, 1895.
Although this was clearly written, it was of very little value because it discussed the work being done in America only in general and florid language; it reflected too much of the amazement and bewilderment of the author.

Dobbins, R. W., Founding and Early Work of the Ohio School for Blind, 1926-1927. (Pamphlet in Perkins Institution Library)
This work, although necessarily brief, was very useful as a source of information about the Ohio School for the Blind; as far as we know it was very clear and unbiased.

Ennis, Edna, The Ohio State School, 1930-1931. (Pamphlet in Perkins Institution Library)
This was reasonably valuable as another source of correct facts on the Ohio school.

Frampton, Merle E. Education of the Blind, a Study of Methods of Teaching the Blind. New York: The World Book Company, 1940.
This book was too technical concerning instructing to be of any great value in this thesis.

"Friedlander and Education of the Young Blind," The Seer, vol. XI, no. 1, March, 1941. (Published by the Pennsylvania Association for the Blind, Inc., Philadelphia)
This was of extraordinary value in furnishing a brief sketch of the early years of the Pennsylvania institution in Philadelphia.

Howe, Julia Ward, Memoirs of Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe. Boston: Albert J. Wright
Although this contained some valuable information about the work of Dr. Howe with the blind, it was concerned principally with his other activities. Also, the close relationship between the author and Dr. Howe was evident from much of the coloring given to the information.

Huntoon, Benjamin B., Printing for the Blind as Developed by the American Printing House for the Blind, Inc. Louisville: American Printing House for the Blind, 1913.
This was valuable somewhat in that it gave much technical information about changes in the methods of embossing various types. Generally, however, it was too technical to be of great value.

Illingworth, W. H., *History of the Education of the Blind.* London: Sampson Low, Marston and Co., Ltd., 1910.
This work was an excellent account of the early attempts to train the blind, the early schools in America, the methods used early in Europe and America. Generally, it was very comprehensive, unbiased, and systematic.

Janney, Catherine, *The Rise of the Ohio State School for the Blind*, 1925-1926. (Pamphlet in Perkins Institution Library)
Although this pamphlet was rather brief, it generally was very accurate and clear.

Lamson, Mary Swift, *Life and Education of Laura Dewey Bridgeman.* Boston: Riverside Press, 1881.
This was of little use because it dealt with Howe's general work with the blind only secondarily.

Lende, Helga, *What of the Blind?* New York: American Foundation for the Blind, Inc., 1941.
This was of almost no value because it dealt with current conditions of the sightless in America.

Merry, Ralph Vickers, *Problems in Education of Visually Handicapped Children.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1933.
This was valuable only for educational improvements which have been made since approximately 1890. For that reason it could not discuss much of the period covered herein.

Pamphlets on the Education of the Blind. New York: Brad Street Co., 1880-1916.
This was of little value because it dealt only generally with the subject discussed.

Proceedings at the Celebration of the 100th Anniversary of the Birth of Dr. Samuel Gridley Howe. Boston: Potter Printing Co., 1902.
This was of very little value because its authors only spoke of Dr. Howe and his work in eulogizing and somewhat florid terms.

Richards, Laura E., *Laura Bridgeman, The Story of an Opened Door.* New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1928.
This book dealt with the activities of Samuel Howe in the field of education of the blind only secondarily.

Richards, Laura E., *Samuel Gridley Howe.* New York: D. Appleton and Co., 1935.
Although this work was valuable as a source of information on the activities of Dr. Howe, it was too biased favoring Howe to be of great use. As stated previously, the close relationship of the author with the subject was evident. Otherwise, the book was woefully incomplete concerning Howe.

Richards, Laura E., *Two Noble Lives, Samuel Gridley Howe and Julia Ward Howe.* Boston: Dana Estes and Company.
This also was too emotionally related to the subjects. Nevertheless, many of the accounts of mere actions were correct and clear.

Ross, Ishbel, *Journey into Light.* New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1951.
This was very useful as a source of clear and objective information on the activities of outstanding blind individuals in Europe, the early career of Samuel G. Howe, and the early move for the education of the sightless in America.

Ross, Ishbel, *The Lifted Veil.* (Unpublished manuscript of the preceding work)
This was *especially* useful as a source for information about S. G. Howe's part in the establishment of American schools for the blind. It was also very useful as a history of the schools established independently of Dr. Howe.

"Samuel Gridley Howe," *The Charities Review*, vol. VII, September-February, 1897-1898. (Published by the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York)
This was of very little value because it spoke of Howe in only general and eulogizing terms.

Sanborn, F. B., *Dr. S. G. Howe, The Philanthropist.* New York: Funk and Wagnells, 1891.
This was of very little value because it did not discuss in any detail the work of Dr. Howe among the blind.

Schwartz, Harold, *Samuel Gridley Howe--Social Reformer--1801-1876.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1950.
This work was especially useful in furnishing information about the first years of Perkins Institution and the early activities by Dr. Howe in spreading the movement for the education of the sightless in America.

Stearnes, Frank Preston, "Chevalier Howe," *Cambridge Sketches.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott and Co., 1905.
This was of next to no use because the author merely praised and eulogized Howe in the most florid of terms.

Tyler, Alice Felt, *Freedom's Ferment.* Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1944.
Although this work mentioned the essential facts, it could not give in any detail the activities closely related to the field of education of the blind in America.

Varney, Adah May, A Brief Sketch of the History of the Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind, 1931. (Pamphlet in Perkins Institution Library)
This short work was of very great assistance in gathering information about the early years of the Virginia school.

"William Chapin and His Graduates," The Seer, vol. XI, no. 2, June, 1941. (Published by the Pennsylvania Association for the Blind, Inc., Philadelphia)
This was of little value because it dealt with the period after that discussed herein.

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